

# The History Teacher's Magazine

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## Early Rome and Italy

BY GEORGE WILLIS BOTSFORD, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

### The Teaching of Roman History. II.

#### I. INTRODUCTION

To the investigator no period of classical history has proved so difficult as that reviewed in this paper. The condition here mentioned is due to the lack of contemporary written sources. In fact, the field has been so discouraging as to repel many teachers of Roman history; if nothing can be known of the subject, they reason, it would be wise to apply our valuable time to more promising fields. While, however, this attitude of mind has been developing, archaeological research has accumulated extensive materials destined to form a solid basis of historical study. Competent scholars, too, are actively engaged in reviewing this material and in drawing historical deductions. It will here suffice to mention two or three works which form an excellent beginning of this line of reconstruction. The first is *De Sanctis*, G., "*Storia dei Romani*," 2 vols. (Torino, 1907). This is the first history of Rome to make use of the fresh archaeological material. Of the entire work, which reaches to the outbreak of the wars with Carthage, substantially the earlier half is devoted to the period closing with the abolition of the kingship. A great part of this first volume is applied, not to criticism but to reconstruction. The author shows an astonishingly wide acquaintance with the reports of excavations and with the periodical and monographic works which touch even remotely upon the subject, and may be accepted therefore as an excellent guide. It is not to be wondered at, however, that a pioneer in the field should spin out many hypotheses which sober scholarship is bound to reject. This is true of the author under consideration; while following his guidance to the widely scattered literature on the subject we ought to adopt a cautious attitude toward his interpretations.

Here it may be well to explain that naturally the chief workers in the field are the Italians, a people whose leaders are gifted with great intelligence and with earnest persistent devotion to the discovery of truth. The language most necessary in the study of early Rome is therefore Italian. It is more difficult than French, but far easier than German. A single summer vacation given wholly to a study of the language will enable the teacher to begin reading *De Sanctis* and other Italian historians with satisfaction. Those who set themselves to the task of acquiring a foreign language for the purpose of historical study should limit themselves to plain prose, avoiding poetry, philosophy, and novels.

The second work to which attention is directed is Peet, T. E., "*The Stone and Bronze Ages in Italy and Sicily*" (Clarendon Press, 1909). It is fortunate that we have available in English so commendable a history of the earlier stages of Italic civilization. The compass of the volume of 525 pages is an indication of the large amount of material already collected and partially systematized on the pre-iron age. The work describes the material, and on the basis thus formed attempts a reconstruction of the civilization. No one who even glances through this volume will thereafter dare say, "nothing can be known of early Roman (Italian) history." We learn, in fact, that Italy has a far longer cultural history than Greece, that whereas the history of the Hellenic peninsula begins with the neolithic age, in Italy we have to do first with the paleoliths, a far more primitive people. In the just distribution of credit for the results of study set forth in this volume it should be noted that the author is a well-equipped investigator in the field, but that in the general lines of his interpretation and reconstruction he has followed Pigorini, the most eminent authority in the world on the period of Italian history covered by Peet's treatise. Mention should also be made of Modestav, B., "*Introduction à l'histoire romaine*" (Paris, 1907), a work by a distinguished scholar covering a wider field than that included in Peet's treatise. Of quite a different character is Montelius, O., "*La civilisation primitive en Italie depuis l'introduction des métaux*" (Stockholm and Berlin), an enormous work under publication, embracing cuts, scientifically classified, of all the known archaeological objects of the period designated by the title. It will bring the main sources home to every library that can afford the expense of purchase.

It would be possible to give this entire article to the bibliography and sources for the period under consideration. There can be little doubt, however, that the reader of *THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE* would prefer a sketch, however brief, of the period, with occasional reference to books.

#### II. THE STONE AGES

The earliest human inhabitants of Italy known to us were those of the paleolithic (primitive stone) age. We find the works of their hands in western Liguria and more sparsely in other parts of the kingdom. They were without houses, domestic animals, and pottery, but made rough tools and arms of



bone, horn, and unpolished stone. They lived in caves or other sheltered places, and dressed in skins. The lakes and rivers supplied abundant fish. They stalked through the vast forests, to seek wild fruit, to slay a mammoth bull, or with their crude stone weapons and wooden bludgeons to wage terrific warfare with the gigantic cave-bears, hyenas, lions, and elephants of that time. This savagery probably continued through thousands of years.

Meanwhile the more open and attractive parts of the peninsula were gradually improving. Either by internal development or perhaps by immigration the art of polishing stone came to be known. Thus arose the neolithic (new stone) age. Implements of that material now became more varied and more efficient. Noteworthy are the hooks and sinkers for fishing, the axes of green stone, flint knives, hammers, and saws. People hunted and fished, they ate wild fruit and game as before; but they also domesticated sheep, goats, swine, cattle, and horses. They fashioned crude pottery with the hand and decorated it with the nail or with a sharp stick. Their own bodies they adorned with pigment.

Where conditions favored they outgrew their cave dwellings, substituting round or oval cabins, partly buried in the earth and built above of clay and skins on a frame of stakes and wattle. They grouped their huts in villages centering in the dwelling of the chief. With their dead they buried food, arms, utensils, and ornaments according to the general custom of primitive people. The greatest progress in the arts of peace was made by the people of southern Italy and eastern Sicily, who evidently had commerce with the Aegean islands and coasts and to a less extent with the more northerly parts of Greece. From these regions they imported potteries of a more advanced type than any of northern Italy of the same period. In imitation of the imports we find native wares of relatively graceful form, with paint-filled incisions, with stamped geometric patterns, and occasionally with paintings in brown.

The earliest known inhabitants of the entire Mediterranean basin were a short, dark people, with oval faces and long heads as the anthropologists measure them (see Sergi, "Mediterranean Race"). Doubtless the neoliths of Italy belonged to this "race." The weight of evidence seems to indicate that the Ligurians of Roman times, a non-Indo-European people, according to most authorities, were a survival from the period under consideration. Originally they occupied a large part of the peninsula, and extended continuously westward along the coast into Spain, where in historical time they were known as Iberians. In the consideration of this subject, however, it is to be noted that in primitive times there was much migration, that peoples of diverse stocks and languages mingled with one another so readily that it is now impossible to discover in the remotest antiquity reached by historical research a community of un-mixed stock; in brief, the "pure race" remains an unproved theory.

### III. THE BRONZE AGE; THE INDO-EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION AND THE TERREMARE

About 2500 B.C., the neolithic civilization began gradually to be modified by the importation of copper. This metal had long been mined in Cyprus and in the region about Mount Sinai, and had been employed by the Orientals in the liberal arts. From the East its use gradually extended to Europe. The dates of the eneolithic (copper-stone) age in Italy are approximately 2500-2000. As the metal was scarce and too soft for effective tools, the people of Italy and the neighboring islands continued to make their arms and implements chiefly of the same materials as heretofore. In fact, they now developed the stone industry to the height of its perfection. Gradually the process of mixing tin with copper so as to form bronze, a relatively hard, durable material, was perfected and diffused. The bronze age, thus initiated, began in Italy about 2000 and continued through the millennium.

Whether this composite metal was introduced simply by commerce or by the immigration of a new people, we do not know. It would seem, however, to accord best with the known facts to assume an immigration from the valley of the Danube, beginning gently toward the close of the neolithic age and swelling to a great volume at the opening of the age of bronze. It was about this time that Indo-Europeans began to invade Greece; and it is not unlikely that other people of the same speech began invading Italy on the eve of the second millennium B.C. If this view is sound, the invaders must have brought with them the bronze civilization and the lake-dwelling habit to which they were accustomed in their earlier home.

In the low, flat country north of the Po—the present Lombardy and Veneto—the immigrants built their huts, grouped in villages, on piles driven into the beds of lakes, the upper ends reaching above the water. This custom they had adopted as a protection from wild beasts and human enemies. The villagers enjoyed, too, the advantage of supplying themselves with fish from the waters immediately below, and of disposing of garbage, which otherwise is allowed to collect in and about the dwellings of primitive men.

Expanding beyond the lake region, especially by crossing to the south of the Po, they transferred their settlements to dry land. In making this change they necessarily modified their principle of construction. The village thus developed is now known as *terramara* (pl. *terremare*). This is an Italian phrase signifying "rich earth," so named by the modern peasants of the neighborhood, who use the rich debris of the villages as a fertilizer for their fields. The *terramara* was "a settlement in trapezoidal form, orientated roughly north and south, and supported on piles. The whole settlement is enclosed by a rampart of earth, outside which lies a moat supplied with running water by a neighboring stream" (Peet, p. 331; see fig. p. 338). It was a structure naturally adopted for defence by a people long accustomed to



lake-dwellings. Two principal streets crossed each other at right angles in the center. Within the village was a rectangular area, also surrounded by a moat. This space was probably the holy precinct (*templum*), the residence of the chief and the assembly-place of the citizens. The settlement had a single gate, at which a bridge was thrown over the outer moat. Outside were cemeteries built like the village, though on a smaller scale. Here were deposited the ashes of the dead in large, coarse, earthen jars.

From an examination of the débris which accumulated beneath the dwellings we learn that the inhabitants were farmers as well as shepherds and hunters. They cultivated flax, wheat, millet, and beans. They spun and wove linens and woollens, to add these cloths to their wardrobe of skins. The distinctive feature of the age, however, as stated above, is the introduction of bronze. The metal was used in knives, daggers, swords, arrow-heads, pins, bodkins, awls, sickles, razors, and many other such wares. It is especially noteworthy that these people possessed considerable skill in surveying, engineering, and hydraulics, to be able to map out their villages by the points of the compass, to build so substantially with wood and earth, and to supply the moat with water. It should also be noted that the plan of their village was almost an exact prototype of the Roman camp and colony.

These peculiar settlements were confined to the Po valley, and there were besides in this region the ordinary hut villages which we find in the same age throughout the peninsula. Naturally we infer that they belonged to the neoliths, who occupied the country before the coming of the Indo-Europeans. Near the end of the bronze age, however, the latter abandoned their lake-dwellings and *terremare* and learned to live in ordinary huts. In other respects the culture of the earlier inhabitants was assimilated to that of the newcomers; the bronze civilization and the Indo-European language prevailed. The people, formed by the mingling of these two elements, may be called *Italici*—Italians in the narrower sense of the term.

Meanwhile some of the *Italici*, leaving the Po valley, crossed the Apennines. One horde, passing through the Sabine country, came down upon the Alban hills and the left bank of the Tiber. The mingling of these people with the natives produced the historical Latins. Another branch of the same stock settled in the country north of the Tiber—the Etruria of historical times. The latter horde did not limit itself to Etruria, but occupied approximately the whole breadth of the peninsula. From their mingling with the natives arose the historical Umbrians. Closely related to them, in a loose sense their colonists, were the Sabellians in the central mountains of Italy south of the Umbrians.

The people of southern Italy and Sicily were scarcely touched by influence from the north. They continued to trade with the Aegean region, where at this time flourished the Mycenaean civilization. The Sicilians and south Italians had far less wealth than

the Mycenaeans, but their civilization though poorer and though inferior in quality, was of the same general character. It is a remarkable fact that while the Mycenaean civilization declined, a similar decay during the same period—the closing years of the second millennium—is discoverable in Italy and Sicily. It was the general decline of bronze civilization and the beginning of transition to the age of iron.

#### IV. THE BEGINNINGS OF THE IRON AGE; PHOENICIANS, GREEKS, AND ETRUSCANS

The first age of iron extends to the coming of the Etruscans, approximately 1000-800 B.C. During these two centuries Aemilia, in the Po valley, Etruria, and Latium had essentially the same civilization, a development from that of the *terremare*. The custom of burning the dead, practised in the *terremare*, prevailed over this region. Among the forms of funeral vase in both Etruria and Latium was the well-known "hut-urn," patterned after the cabins of the living. Around the cinerary urn were deposited smaller vases, tools, weapons, and ornaments, presumably for the use of the dead. The beginnings of the age were far inferior to the preceding bronze culture in wealth and in skill. This fact holds for Greece as well as for Italy. The pottery was decorated with rude geometric incisions, crosses, zigzags, triangles, and similar figures. Gradually the number of objects increases and their quality shows growing wealth and skill.

We do not know in what way the use of iron came to Italy; but as recent research (see especially the volumes of the "*Zeitschr. für Ethnologie*," beginning 1907) has made it certain that the iron industry arose in the east-Mediterranean region, we may reasonably assume that a knowledge of the metal was brought thence through commerce and colonization. It is known that the Mycenaeans traded with southern Italy and Sicily, and there is a strong tradition that they sent colonies thither. As the Mycenaeans declined, the Phoenicians seized the opportunity to push westward and to continue more aggressively the work of trade and colonization. It may have been their ships which brought iron to the shores of the western Mediterranean. At all events *Italic* art assumed strong Oriental features; and the political and commercial relations of Carthage with the Etruscans and other peoples of Italy were an important factor in the history of the sixth century B.C.

Evidences of Greek trade with Campania appear as early as the middle of the ninth century (*cf.* Peet, in *Papers of the British School at Rome*, IV. 294); and about a hundred years later Greek colonization began. This subject is well treated in the various histories of Greece (see *HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE*, V. no. 4; for bibliography, *ib.* no. 6). It was through the Hellenes that Italy, which hitherto had remained in the obscure background of the world's civilization, was brought into close and continuous touch with cultural progress. Their influence was exerted in part directly, in part through the Etruscans.

Regarding the Etruscans, it will no longer suffice to relegate them to a single paragraph of a historical manual with the apology that they are "the greatest riddle in Roman history." That phrase has been largely antiquated by recent research. The old standard work, Müller, K. O., "Die Etrusker," revised by Deecke, 2 vols. (Stuttgart, 1877), is still valuable for a study of fundamental institutions, but for the problems of the race it is totally outworn. Martha, J., "L'Art étrusque" (Paris, 1889), may still be used as a description of materials and for its excellent illustrations, though the historical interpretations are far behind the times. The best general treatment of the whole subject is now Körte and Skutsch, "Etrusker," in Pauly-Wissowa, Real-Encyclopädie, VI (1907), 730-806. The Etruscological publications of 1894-1907, including some works of the greatest importance, are ably reviewed in Jahresb. der klass. Altertumswissenschaft, 1908.

Although thousands of inscriptions have been collected, no one as yet has been able to read the language. We can scarcely hope for such an achievement till some rare good fortune brings a bilingual inscription to light. Martha, J., "La langue étrusque," published within the past few months, and doubtless representing the most recent view of the subject, the present writer has not had an opportunity to examine. Etruscologists, however, are now convinced that these people came from the islands of the Aegean sea or the adjacent parts of Asia Minor. Whereas, occasionally a scholar (cf. Bugge, S., "Das Verhältnis der Etrusker zu den Indogermanen und die vorgriech. Bevölkerung Kleinasien," etc., Strassburg, 1909), contends for an Indo-European origin, evidence favoring their connection with the native peoples of Asia Minor, seems overwhelming (see Kannengiesser, A., "Ist das Etruskische eine hettitische Sprache?"). In a more recent study Kannengiesser ("Aegäische, besonders kretische, Namen bei den Etruskern," in Klio, xi, 1911, pp. 26-47), on a basis of a comparison of Cretan place names with Etruscan proper nouns, infers a migration of Etruscans from Crete or its vicinity. Deductions from such comparisons of the words of unknown languages are necessarily uncertain; and yet so extensive resemblances as we find in this case seem to warrant a presumption in favor of an actual relationship. Similarly a comparison of the pre-Hellenic inscribed stele of Lemnos, sixth century B.C., with Etruscan monuments reveals not only a linguistic but an archaeological kinship (see especially Karo, G., "Die 'tyrsenische' Stele von Lemnos," in Ath. Mitt. XXXIII, 65-74). The Etruscans, or more strictly the Tyrseni, were in brief a remnant of the pre-Hellenic inhabitants of the Aegean region, probably dislodged by the Greek colonial expansion over that territory. Their principal migration to Italy seems to have taken place about 800. As they made their journey by ship, their number must have been small relatively to that of the natives. It would be unsafe to speak of an actual conquest. A few gifted strangers, appearing in a village of barbarians

and working on their credulity, might often win the mastery without resort to arms. The newcomers borrowed words and customs from the natives, but in general their language and their superior civilization prevailed. The intermingling of the immigrant Tyrseni with the Umbrians produced the historical Etruscans. Their dominance was most complete in the country named after them Etruria, but they also gained a temporary control over Campania and the Po valley.

We have seen that the first great problem connected with these people—their origin and ethnic connections—has in large part been solved. The chief remaining problem is their relation with the Latins. An attempt at solution has been made by Schulze, W., "Zur Geschichte lateinischer Eigennamen" (Berlin, 1904). This author found the same resemblances between Etruscan and Latin proper names which Kannengiesser afterward discovered between the Cretan and Etruscan. Although no single resemblance can be taken as proof of a kinship between the two words compared, the multiplicity of resemblances seem to be evidence of a kinship, or of an extensive borrowing, between the two languages. This kinship, with the relation between Latin and Etruscan civilization, was in spite of contrasts so close that it could hardly be explained by a temporary dominion under the Tarquins. It would suggest rather the assumption that in the course of the Etruscan colonization of Italy, mentioned above, powerful men with their clients drifted to Rome somewhat after the manner of Tarquinius Priscus, and became an active part of the community. Rome's indebtedness to Etruria, however, has been greatly exaggerated by Carter, J. B., "Religious Life of Ancient Rome," ch. i.

#### V. THE GROWTH OF THE CITY OF ROME

The story of the founding of Rome and of her growth under the seven successive kings, as told by Livy, bk. i, and in far greater detail by Dionysius of Halicarnassus, bks. i-iv, was long ago found to be without historical basis. Perhaps the best criticism of the narrative available in English is that of Ihne, W., "History of Rome." No author, however, has brought to bear upon the subject so wide and accurate knowledge and so penetrating an intellect as Pais, E., "Storia di Roma" (Torino, 1898, 1899), and "Storia critica di Roma," I (Rome, 1913). The writer of the present article has attempted to use the reigns of these kings as a chronological basis for the institutional and cultural history of the period, but in vain. The narrative is too artificial to serve so useful a purpose.

A more substantial basis can be laid in the study of the topography in connection with the political and religious institutions associated with the several localities. This order of development the future historian of Rome will undoubtedly follow. Some material on the subject can be found in Platner, S. B., "Topography and Monuments of Ancient Rome" (2d ed., Boston, 1911), the best and most convenient

work in English on Roman topography; or more briefly in the first few pages of Huelsen, C., "Roman Forum," translated by J. B. Carter (Rome, 1909). These two books should be in every school library. A great storehouse of information is Pinza, *Monumenti Antichi*, XV (1905), the entire volume being an exposition of the primitive monuments of Rome and Latium.

When the earliest pioneers of the human race in central Italy penetrated to the country about the mouth of the Tiber, they must have found on the hills of Rome a welcome refuge from the unhealthy swamps below. The fact that scant traces of habitations earlier than the iron age have been found is only to be expected in view of the great building activity of the historical city. On which of the seven hills the first settlers erected their cabins cannot be known, nor is the point material. Villages probably long existed side by side on some or all of them, each protected with a rude wall of earth and uncut stones. Politically independent they were not; for the villagers owed allegiance to the folk chief, in whose council sat their elders. The territory belonging to a village was a *pagus*.

Under favorable circumstances a village or group of villages tended to develop into a city. There could be but one city at Rome, within the restricted area of the seven hills. Necessarily it centred in a hill which was well protected by nature. This requirement was admirably met by the Palatine, which at the same time was the most central of the group. Here, as the Romans of the historical period believed, Romulus founded his city. The story is in substance probable, as the hill bears the stamp of high antiquity. Recently certain scholars, among whom Carter, J. B., "Roma Quadrata and the Septimontium," in *Am. Journ. of Archaeol.* XII, 172-83, may be taken as representative, have attempted to deprive the Palatine of its traditional honor, but in vain. In that locality were celebrated the primitive festivals of the Palilia (Parilia) and Lupercalia; and there have been discovered remnants of a temple of the sixth, possibly of the seventh, century B.C. There, too, was the hut of Romulus, faithfully preserved by the Romans, the mundus or augural center of the city, and various other primitive cults. The religious institutions mentioned here and elsewhere in this article are explained by Fowler, W. W., "Religious Experience of the Roman People" (London, 1911).

If, as supposed above, the city began from the Palatine as a center, it was but natural that the Esquiline, connected with the Palatine by the Velia, should be first annexed. The enlarged city, including also the near-lying part (Sucus) of the Caelian, is known as the Septimontium because of its embracing seven localities, principally heights (map, Huelsen, p. 2; Platner, p. 39). This stage of growth is represented by the festival of the Septimontium celebrated during historical time. On the Septimontium in general, see Pais, "Storia critica," I, 636ff.

It is with the Palatine stage, or at the latest with

the Septimontium, that we must connect the origin of the curiae and of the three primitive tribes. Whereas, the curiae were associations which naturally took account of existing relationships, of family and kin, the tribes were arbitrary divisions, personal and territorial, created by the state for administrative purposes. The circumstance that the same tribal names recur in some or all of the Latin towns (Botsford, "Roman Assemblies," 4, n. 3) is evidence that they represent merely a scheme of organization; and the Etruscan bases of their names, Ramnes, Tities, and Luceres, suggest their importation into Latium from Etruria, where developed a remarkable genius for political organization. At the northeast corner of the Palatine was a complex of buildings, the curiae veteres (ancient curiae), in which the curial associations originally gathered. For their festival of the Fornicalia, see Fowler.

On the Quirinal was another settlement scarcely less ancient than that on the Palatine. This fact is sufficiently proved by the primitive local names, the remains of two temples as early as the one on the Palatine, and the presence of an Ancient Citadel (Capitolium Vetus) antedating the fortress on the Capitoline hill. The incorporation of this settlement, including the Viminal hill, with Rome ushered in the third stage of expansion, described by modern scholars as the city of the four regions. The city thus formed was far from compact. It was a straggling group of villages on adjacent hills separated by wide stretches of vacant land. The valleys among the hills were at best but marshes, covered with stagnant water during the greater part of the year, and deeply flooded with every inundation of the Tiber. The draining of these marshes, the laying out of the Forum and Comitium, the erection of temples and other public buildings in the neighborhood of the Forum belong to the later regal period and the early Republic. The new city was divided into four tribes (regions) to take the place of the three primitive tribes; and probably at the same time rural tribes were instituted.

It is possible to date approximately the institution of the city of the four regions. In 1902 excavations revealed a cemetery near the Forum. The character of the objects found in the graves proves that the cemetery was in use roughly from the ninth to the seventh century. This was the period of the Palatine city and of the Septimontium. As ancient custom required, the cemetery ceased to be used when its ground came to be included in the city. From the fact that burials ceased about 700, we have a right to assign the beginning of the enlarged city to the sixth century; and on this point archaeology agrees with tradition.

The growth of the city was accompanied by an expansion of her territory. There are indications that the original territory of Rome, of the pagi belonging to her villages, did not exceed forty square miles. At the close of the regal period it had increased to about three hundred and fifty square miles.



## VI. THE SOCIAL CLASSES OF EARLY ROME

Most of the primitive Romans were shepherds and farmers. Each had his house and the fold for his flock within the walls, till the population outgrew the limited area of the city and extended into the country. In the morning the peasant went out into his field to till it, and returned in the evening to his dwelling within the walls. His field was his own, but his cattle were pastured on the common land. He tilled the soil with his own hands and with the help of his sons, as there were few slaves, and they belonged to the rich.

It is a fundamental truth that by nature men are unequally endowed with physical and mental gifts; and for that reason do not long continue on the same social level. Among a warlike people, military ability is the primary cause of distinction. Skill in divination and magic may act as potently in elevating an individual above his fellows. Both occupations bring wealth and reputation, which when inherited through several generations, make nobility. These tendencies arose as soon as men began to live together in society; and long before the founding of Rome, or of any other city, society was differentiated into nobles and commons, rich and poor, the few who had influence and the many who had none. Hence it is unnecessary to explain the origin of these classes at Rome. In studying the history of this state, our task is rather to examine the character of social classes, their relation to each other, and their standing in the community. The many were called by the abstract name plebs, or concretely the plebeians, "multitude," "masses," as distinguished from the few nobles. The heads of the most powerful families composed the senate—the council of the king. No law or custom prescribed who should be senators; but the king, wishing to secure the good will and coöperation of the influential citizens, naturally invited them to seats in his council. Members of that body were called *patres*, "fathers," partly because as a rule they were older men—whence arose the words *senatus*, *senatores*—and partly because they stood toward the community in some such relation as fathers stand toward children. The word *patricius* is an adjective, which signifies "belonging to the pater or *patres*," and applies to the families of the senators. The patricians were accordingly the people of senatorial rank. Although the patriciate tended to become hereditary, it was perfectly possible throughout the regal period for men of lower rank to rise by superior ability above the common level, to a place of such influence and power in the community as to compel the king to grant them seats in the senate. We find the kings freely bestowing, not only the citizenship, but also the senatorship and with it the patriciate on eminent foreigners who voluntarily came to Rome or were transferred thither on the annexation of their communities. In fact, the patrician families of the historical age uniformly claimed descent from foreign sources.

The patriciate, that is, membership of a senatorial family, was in the beginning unessential to the filling of offices. Romulus, the founder of the state and of its fundamental institutions, was not a patrician. Not one of his successors, with the exception of the last, was a patrician by birth. Tatius, his colleague, and Numa, his successor, were both Sabines, who had not at the time of their accession received even the citizenship. Tullus Hostilius, the next king after Numa, was the grandson of a Latin who had removed from his native city to Rome. Though the family distinguished itself in war, no mention is made of its elevation to the patriciate. Ancus Martius was a Sabine, who had certainly not been given the patriciate. Servius Tullius was the son of a slave mother. Tarquinius Priscus was an Etruscan, who came to Rome and was made a senator and patrician by the reigning king. The kings who were not patricians, even to a greater degree than those who were, performed not only civil but also religious functions. It was, in fact, the Sabine Numa who founded many of the most essential religious institutions of Rome. Attus Navius, the swine-herd, a man of ignoble birth, was the most famous augur of early Rome. These traditions must have arisen before the patricians acquired power to control historical opinion, and have in them far more truth than is contained in the theories of modern scholars. The condition represented by this tradition belongs to the earlier history of Rome. Gradually the patricians organized themselves in a body and monopolized the offices and priesthoods together with the economic advantages belonging to a ruling class. While disqualifying all but themselves for political and sacerdotal offices, they created the public opinion that they were nearer and dearer to the gods than common men, and that the efficacy of religious ceremonies was vitiated by the presence of plebeian blood in the one who officiated. This condition, arising in the later regal period, found its fullest development in the first century of the Republic. Under these circumstances poor plebeians for the sake of protection attached themselves as clients to individual patricians. In this way there gradually developed a social-political system which modern scholars, disregarding the facts, have pushed back to the beginning of the city.

The limited space allowed this article has compelled the writer to omit many topics which belong to the period covered and nearly all the evidence on which his conclusions rest. It is hoped, however, that this meagre sketch may in some degree prove serviceable to teachers who wish to align themselves with the latest discoveries in the field.

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The beginning of a bibliography of American newspapers, 1690-1820, by Clarence S. Brigham, appears in the Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society for 1913. This list gives an historical sketch of each newspaper, and attempts to give the names of libraries throughout the country where files of each paper may be found. Mr. Brigham's long study of American newspapers well fits him for this definitive work.

## A Single Aim in History Teaching

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In this ultra-progressive age when every face is turned toward the future, the man whose profession is to study and teach the story of the past is inclined to feel a burden of proof resting upon him to show the necessity for his existence. He is twitted with working over dead details, of having his interest in the past rather than in the future. He is looked upon as a reactionary, or at best a sort of straggler in the march of progress. So insistently is he confronted with this attitude towards his work, even in the utterances of co-workers in the fields of economics, government, and other social sciences, that he is not infrequently led to question for himself the value of his mission. Indeed, at present, it is not at all uncommon to find a history teacher who has thrown down his weapons of defense at the first challenge and, under the name of history, is proceeding to teach a sort of mongrel monstrosity made up of varying portions of economics and sociology with selected bits of other studies thrown in to suit the taste. Under these conditions I feel that it is time that members of our craft make a serious effort to set bounds to the field of their endeavors, and this paper is the result of an attempt to locate and evaluate the province of the history teacher in a scheme of twentieth century education.

It is a current truism that education is a training for life. It is learning to live with all that living implies—the feeding and clothing of the body, the expanding and beautifying of the soul. This life, for which the student is being prepared, is in large part made up of two sets of relations: (1) those with the soil, air, water, plants and animals about him—the world that we vaguely call “nature,” and (2) those with the rest of mankind. With the increased means of transportation and communication, industrial combination and democratic governments, the second group of life relations are naturally becoming increasingly complex and more and more important. It is not my province here to go into detail to show the forces bringing this about; they are everywhere evident. We are living in a companionable age—one in which companionability is thrust upon us. We cannot live isolated if we so desire. The result of these conditions is seen first of all in an increasing social spirit on the part of human society in practically all phases of its activity—political, industrial, artistic, religious. We are working in groups, not as individuals. It has resulted in the second place in an increased demand for all kinds of social leaders, paid and unpaid, professional and amateur.

These conditions are reflected widely in the different fields of conscious and unconscious education. They have resulted in wide-spread research in the field of government, and in the newer realm of sociology, and in an almost frantic effort to solve the ever-

increasing problems of economics. They have filled the pages of our periodical literature with more or less serious discussions of social questions. They have resulted in a fuller curriculum of social studies in our school system from the lower grades to the colleges and graduate schools, and in a demand for a more vital type of instruction along these lines. Everywhere it is evident that we are appreciating the fact that the comprehension of our age is the key to success in both public and private life. In business or in the professions it is clearly important.

Now the comprehension of an age requires that it be seen in two ways: First, analytically—appreciating the inter-relation of its parts; and, secondly, in its time relation. Although the latter is ordinarily less obvious than the first, it is probably equally important. Our present age, or any age, is a part of a much larger thing—the life of the human race, and its place in this larger unity is just as important as the inter-relation of its own parts. A glimpse of the present is meaningless without a picture of the past and a vision of the future. Society is a moving, growing thing. The significance of a cannon-ball depends upon both its mass and its motion; the meaning of society is to be found both in its nature at any one moment and in the direction of its movement. The present age is the front rank of the moving column of human progress, and the direction of march is fully as important as its personnel. To appreciate fully this characteristic of our age is to change our whole attitude toward the society about us, to see all manner of social institutions in a new light. To develop this point of view is, to my mind, the unique province of the history teacher—the essential contribution of history to general education. Geography opens up to the student, in a general way, the world in which he lives; botany, geology, chemistry, each aims to make him acquainted with a special phase of nature; literature, drawing, music aid him in appreciating the artistic side of things; history alone attempts to show matters in their relation to time, to emphasize the importance of sequence in life. It shows the world of the other sciences eternally on the march from the past to the future, a splendid, living, changing pageant. History study should enable a man to set himself apart from the society in which he lives, to stand on the curb, so to speak, and see the procession go by—the present before him, the nineteenth century, the French Revolution, the Reformation Era, the Middle Ages, the Roman Empire, the Greek States, one after the other fading out in the distance, and the vague figures of the stone age blending with the mists of the horizon. This, for us all, should be the permanent state of mind. The present should appear only as the latest phase of the past, one period in the eternal evolution of the human race.

Such an attitude of mind will do much to remedy many of the social weaknesses of our times. For one thing it will serve as an excellent antidote for age bigotry. With the ups and downs, the triumphs and failures of the race before us, it is rather hard for us to believe that mankind is now either on the portals of the millennium, or on the verge of a general cataclysm. For one with this point of view the unreasoning braggadocio that dates all real progress from the day before yesterday, and leads the way to social and political radicalism, has lost its force. To him the mountains of progress, that loom so high to one who is living merely within the sphere of his own experience, appear but as the mole-hills that they are. He will have, as Professor Allan puts it, "a profound sense of the instability of all the most apparently established things." He will be saved from becoming "hypnotized by the crude self-assertion of the dominant. To remember, to know always, that the solid-looking, triumphant, awe-inspiring things—church and state and nationality, thrones, dominions and principalities—are but phases of a process, is to have grasped an emancipating fact."

On the other hand, it saves from a dominating conservatism. There can be few, if any, eternal verities in the social field. The standards of the fathers cannot be our standards. The term *democracy*, for instance, has no meaning if not attached to a particular age. It meant one thing in Ancient Athens, another thing in Republican Rome, still something different in Eighteenth Century France, in Jeffersonian, Jacksonian, in present-day America. Next year, next decade, next century, it will have taken on new meanings. The progressive movements of one age are the millstones about the neck of a succeeding era. Absolute monarchy more than once led the van of political progress; *laissez faire* was a term to conjure by in an age of centralized despotism, governmental regulation in the day of industrial consolidation.

If the historical view-point is necessary for the understanding of the spirit of the age as a whole, it is equally essential in discerning the meaning of its component parts. Every social institution is a growing thing and can be understood only in the light of its time relation. In order to make its latest phase appear clearly, its whole history must stand out before us. We must appreciate its present stage in development. Is it still in the period of its inception, is it in the vigor of maturity, or tottering to its fall? Roscher, in the introduction to his *Political Economy*, illustrates this point in a striking way. He says: "If there were inhabitants of the moon, and one of them should visit our earth, and find children and grown people side by side, while ignorant of the laws of human development, would he not look upon the most beautiful child as a mere monster, with an enormous head, with arms and legs of stunted growth, and destitute of reason? The folly of such a judgment," he adds, "would be obvious to everyone; and yet we meet with thousands like it on the state and public economy of nations \* \* \* and this, even among the most distinguished writers."

A man's character is a peculiar complex, to understand which, even in a superficial way, we must know the nature of his mother's health, his childhood illnesses, his boyhood companionships, his education, his love-affairs, his wife's temper, and a hundred other factors, and knowing these things we see in him a different person from what we had known before—different motives in his acts, different possibilities in his activity. In the same way, who can understand the Roman Catholic Church as a factor in present-day society without a knowledge of the social and political conditions under which Christianity was born, the peculiar organization of the Roman Empire in the period of its decadence, the anarchy of the Middle Ages, and the unique pressure of the Reformation movement. Or what do the various Protestant sects of to-day mean without a knowledge of the personalities of Calvin and of Luther, the fires of their persecution, their moral and intellectual challenge; and the political conditions under which they developed? Our problems of labor and of capital must be unintelligible, of course, without a knowledge of the facts of the Industrial Revolution. The establishment of the Progressive Party will hardly appear in its true significance aside from the story of the development of religious thought and feeling in the last half century.

To illustrate the practical importance of this fact, let us take for example our attitude toward one of our newer political institutions—the initiative and referendum. To the man who views this new system of legislation merely in the light of the present age it appears simply as a step towards a more complete democracy—a movement for putting the government more directly in the hands of the people. If, however, it is approached from the direction of its historical antecedents it stands forth as something of much deeper significance. In this light it appears as a radical departure from a fundamental principle of democratic government. It is a daring modification of the representative system of government, and the historical student recognizes in representative institutions the governmental principle that has made democracy possible on a large scale. Invented by the Anglo-Saxon people, it developed with the English nation, and became a workable system for one of the great powers of the world. It was thence transplanted to America, and during the era of democratic revolutions adopted with various modifications by most of the civilized nations of the world. Only through this device, with its numerous elaborations and adaptations, has it been possible for people anywhere to conduct their own government, or even to share in it. Attempts to work by more direct methods have always failed.

But on the other hand, the historical student realizes the potency of time to work changes in human society, and he fully appreciates the fact that within the last century, and especially within the last few decades, social and economic forces have been at work which have appreciably altered the nature of the American electorate. Popular education and the



remarkable growth of newspapers and periodical literature have clearly raised the standard of political intelligence. At the same time improved methods of communication have brought the members of a political community much closer together. Railroads, electric car-lines, and improved wagon roads, with automobile traffic have immeasurably shortened distances and operated to bring the members of a community nearer to each other physically. So far as a gathering together of its citizens is concerned, the state of Washington is not so large to-day as a single Virginia county was in 1789. But of even more significance from the political standpoint are the new forces—the telegraph, the telephone, and the mail service—which, within a few minutes or a few hours, bring the minds of a whole state or nation together on public issues.

In the light of these historical facts the citizen may see in the recent modifications of the representative system neither an entrance into a political millennium, nor a leap into the crater of radical revolutionism, but a natural political experiment made in an attempt to adapt our institutions to changed social and economic conditions. He realizes that the altered social situation is the chief, possibly the sole basis for the political change. For him, then, it is to decide whether the change has been sufficiently great, or of such a nature as to warrant so radical a move. His historical background gives him a perspective that enables him to see clearly in the matter, and not to act simply in response to the prevailing spirit of his time and his surroundings.

With the teacher of history constantly keeping these functions of his subject in mind, and consciously and unconsciously adapting his teaching to serve them, there can be little danger that his work will be regarded as a mere delving in the dead past. History, presented as the life-story of the human race, is essentially progressive. Its goal is the future. For the student of social institutions to look upon history as dead is no more logical than for the mathematician to attempt to disregard all but his last point in plotting his curve, or for the surveyor to work solely from the last stake.

To be sure, there are large masses of facts in the past life of the race that have little discernible influence upon the present, that appear, and for all practical purposes are, dead. But because the bark and heartwood of a tree are dead are we justified in assuming that the only vital things about it are the leaf-buds? It is true, also, that isolated historical matters have little practical value. The battle of Marathon, the Council of Trent, or the Tennis-Court Oath taken out of their setting are decidedly meaningless, but it must also be confessed that there is nothing very enlightening or exciting about the study of stomata or fibro-vascular bundles outside of their place in the life scheme of the plant.

Human society begins in the prehistoric past, leads through the present towards the future, and to be adequately studied must be seen in the large. This fact naturally leads to the coöperation of history and

the other social sciences. The inter-relation of their work is close. The fields they occupy are in proximity, with overlapping claims in many places. Each, however, has a definite assignment in severalty. As already pointed out, the *essential function* of the history teacher is to present social facts in their time relation. In telling the story of the development of the human race he may, and doubtless will, set forth facts and describe conditions that may serve the trained sociologist or economist as raw material for his work in formulating social laws. This same material also may become the basis for cruder deductions on the part of his untrained hearer, but after all his peculiar province is to show the time element. The sociologist may dissect the society of an age and determine the laws governing it; if he takes facts from a different period, however, he must eliminate the time element before he can use them. To the historian, on the other hand, facts derive their significance solely from their time relation. Roughly speaking, the economist, the sociologist, and the political scientist are engaged in presenting cross-sections; the historian, at the same time, is showing the longitudinal view.

The practical instincts of the present age, and a predilection for the method of the natural sciences, has tended to make a study of present-day social problems popular, partially to the exclusion of historical studies. The movement is in many respects a good one. We need the teaching of government and economics in our high schools and to a certain extent in our common schools. But the tendency involves a danger. Unless we appreciate the essential function of history teaching, we are liable to lose an important factor in our instruction in social fields. No amount of civics or economics can take the place of history. They emphasize but one side, present only one of two necessary points of view—and that the most obvious one. The method of attack in the other social sciences is much more familiar to the student than is the method in history. It is the familiar system of the natural sciences—the analyzing and synthesizing process carried on with the material before them. In history alone the time element seriously enters in, or at least here alone it dominates all other factors. The essential aim of history instruction is to develop an unfamiliar point of view. Practically unaided by other studies, it must bring a new element into the student's life. This is naturally a slow process, one that cannot be accomplished in a semester's nor a year's work, even when the task is in the hands of an expert teacher who sees his goal.

But we are asked: Why not begin with the problems of the present and work back to their antecedents—teach our history incidentally in connection with our civics and economics, and thus obviate the danger of not making the connection between the past and the present? We must answer that under such a plan the viewpoint of the student would be all wrong. The process is one of working up stream. It is reading the last chapter first. It must be re-

membered that only the professional investigator is interested in causes for their own sake. Enthusiasm comes with the unfolding. If already we have the solution, it is dull business working out the problem. Such a procedure savors too much of a purely academic process ever to arouse much real interest. It is to be born in mind, also, that in making our age the starting point for all investigation its importance is unduly emphasized in the mind of the student. It tends to make all time revolve about the present instead of showing our age as merely the last phase of a movement begun in the immeasurable past and bound for the infinite future.

Another indication of the same attitude of mind is to be found in the tendency to concentrate attention on the later periods of history—to study our own times as the most vital part of the historical field. I am ready to admit that altogether unproportionate attention has been given to Ancient History, and that much of the time might profitably be transferred to the more modern periods. I believe, however, that in the majority of cases where this move is advocated it is based upon a wrong conception of the function of historical study. History is made practical for the present age by setting forth the whole story as culminating in the present, not by confining the field of study to an age approximating our own. It is the mental attitude of the student that counts. If we once accept the viewpoint that the past is dead, and teach its history in this light, the nineteenth century will be only slightly less decomposed than the earlier

ages—a circumstance that would hardly warrant a discrimination in its favor.

In this discussion of the province of the history teacher I have avoided mentioning the numerous incidental values which the subject doubtless possesses. They have been enumerated in some detail by the Committee of Seven and other writers on the subject of history teaching. I believe, however, that they should be regarded by the teacher of history largely as pedagogical side-lines, and should not divert his mind from his main purpose. The teacher, who in presenting his subject, is aiming to teach sociology, social psychology, economics, political science, ethics, and at the same time endeavoring to train his pupils to reason logically, to develop their imagination, and to broaden their outlook is likely to see his shaft fly wide of the mark entirely. It is precisely this indefiniteness of purpose, this jack-of-all-trades attitude that makes history teaching in many cases so ineffective. If we will have our work tell, we must see our goal clearly, and blaze a straight path to it. We have a very definite field of operation, and no mean task to perform. It is, as we have seen, a unique type of work. We can expect little aid from other fields of educational effort. Ours is the task of putting the student in true touch with his times—to develop in him, as a permanent possession, the historical viewpoint, by which he will see our modern institutions—church, state, family, business enterprises, educational movements—all as living, growing elements in the development of human society.

## Numbers in History

In view of the unprecedented size of the armies engaged in the present European conflict much interest attaches to two lectures delivered by Prof. Hans Delbrück, of the University of Berlin, on October 6 and 7, 1913, before the University of London. Dr. Delbrück, who is a noted specialist in the history of the art of war, demolishes in these lectures many of the great armies of ancient and even of most recent times. He says: "Now the first point to which in any history of war we have to direct our attention is the number of the warriors. It is impossible to form a judgment about any act of fighting if you do not picture to yourself the size of the armies. A movement that a thousand men would make forthwith is for twenty thousand already a strategic movement; for 100,000 a masterpiece, for 300,000 an impossibility. Just so with the provisioning of an army, and provisioning is the half of conducting a campaign. But as important as the numbers are in war and in the decision of war, just as difficult is the determination of these numbers for the historian."

His general thesis is based upon the supposition that the successful general must be "always very strong, first on the whole and then at the decisive point." This principle of military leaders is, however, one which does not appeal to the populace.

Heroic tales must always be based upon the deeds of the few brave against the many vanquished. Professor Delbrück shows that the Greeks defeated the Persians by employing the same means as those employed by the Swiss against the Burgundians, but he holds that even a victory based on superior arms and equipment does not satisfy the popular demand for the heroic. Hence, Swiss legends, like those of the Greeks, multiplied many times the actual size of the opposing army in order that the valor of the patriots might be plain to every fellow-citizen. "The greatest of all warlike virtues is bravery, and bravery in a struggle of the minority against a majority, or indeed in a conquest of the majority by the minority, appears most marked and unquestionable. For this reason the most unreliable and incredible of all the many inaccuracies handed down to us in the chronicles is the number of the armies."

After refusing to accept many of the numbers engaged in the famous battles of history, Professor Delbrück proceeds to establish a basis for ascertaining the true numbers engaged: "All numbers control each other mutually; not only the numbers from the same time and of the same event, but also those from the most remote periods of time." "It is a recognized fact that Moltke displayed great cleverness and

genius in 1870, when he directed the monstrous mass of his troops from one center, drew them up abreast, and made them act together in battle. His work was lightened for him by the fact that the drawing up of the troops was executed in a very broad front, and not less than nine railway lines could be used for this deploy. Numerous macadamized roads further lightened the marches of the troops, and particularly of the wagons. The telegraph transmitted all commands with the swiftness of lightning; an apparatus for orders, developed most delicately during many decades, the organization of assistants, the general staff, bore and shared the work of the commander. The strength of the army was about 400,000 men in the first line, followed by 100,000 in a second line. To direct such a mass unitedly is, even with railways, roads, telegraphs and a general staff, an exceedingly difficult task, and that it is so is also shown by the previously mentioned example that on the day of Vionville, of ten army corps ready at hand, not much more than two were really engaged in action; some of the others were too far in the rear, the rest had been led in a direction where there was no enemy. So there was doubtless a mistake, but one of those mistakes which are unavoidable in war, which therefore are only stated by the critic, but do not deserve to be blamed. They serve us now as a proof that, even under the command of a man recognized by friend and foe as peerless, mistakes in the conduct of such numbers may always happen, especially because the commander-in-chief, in the impossibility of leading such masses directly, has to leave very much to the independent decision of the subordinate generals.

"Well, now, if it was so difficult to move 400,000 men with such aid, by such a man, then all those reports which we have received of similar armies in olden times of the Assyrians, Persians, Gauls, Huns or Germans, are struck out of history. How could Attila have led 700,000 men from Germany over the Rhine into France to the Plain of Chalons, if Moltke moved 500,000 with such difficulty over the same road? The one number acts as a check on the other. The view of the army movements of 1870 gives us a common standard of measure for the movements of the armies in far remote times.

"The armies, however, demand not only to be moved, but also to be provided with food. Even for this side of campaigning the later war-history gives us measures of which we can make use for olden times. When Bazaine with his whole army was besieged in Metz, it was necessary to maintain the 200,000 men of the besieging army for ten weeks on the same spot. Metz lies only about twenty-five English miles distant from the Germany boundary of that time. Behind lay a railway which connected directly with Germany; in spite of this, the provisioning of those 200,000 men with their army service corps proved to be an exceedingly difficult piece of work. The commissariat officer, Engelhard, to whom it was entrusted, has left behind notes concerning it, from which one can most clearly understand with what internal difficulties such a seemingly

simple business had to struggle; nothing seems more prosaic than the buying and delivering of bread, rusks, bacon, meat, erbswurst, hay, or whatever it might be, but the struggle with the object is so entangled that one reads the tale straightway with sustained attention, and these merely business-like transactions become most amusing incidents. There is, indeed, a railway, but the number of the approaching cars is so great that they cover the tracks and block the railway. The provisions arrive, but men are lacking to unload them, until a large company of bearers has been sent for from a manufacturing town. The provisions are unloaded, but now covered space is lacking; they lie in the rain and are spoiled; of the enormous quantity of bread, which back in Berlin was baked, almost nothing of it reached the troops, because it was mouldy before they could get it. The troops had originally no vehicles with which to fetch their provisions from the last station, Remilly, and when they had the wagons, the roads were soon so ruined by traffic that in rainy weather they remained stuck in the mud. What finally came to their aid? It was discovered that on the railway through Nancy, which had been assigned to the third army, then before Paris, the same obstruction prevailed, and far ahead cars with provisions were standing on the tracks which should have been dispatched to them, but had made no progress. These cars the commissariat officer, Engelhard, seized, and thus fed the army before Metz. But when the railway to Paris was again open, the third army demanded their pilfered provisions, which request naturally, as Engelhard dryly remarks, 'could only be answered by giving receipts for what he had taken.'

"In mathematics, the shortest way to come from one point to another is the straight line; not so in history, if you want to come from the assertion of a contemporary to the real truth. We had to work our way through by roundabout paths, to discuss the question of the relative force of the Greeks and Persians. Herodotus tells us quite exactly that 5,100,000 men was the strength of the army of Xerxes, including all the servants that followed the warriors. Seldom in these 2500 years has this number been doubted, and even up to date it has found defenders, although, if it were true, one may calculate that, marching through paths, often very narrow, between the mountains, the last man could only have left Susa, beyond the Tigris, when the first arrived before Thermopylae."

The argument against the size of Xerxes' army continues by analogy drawn from the Burgundians, by a study of the Plain of Marathon and by other arguments. The conclusion of this part of the lecture is: "The consequence of the reversal of numbers in the Greek-Persian War is very far-reaching. How often have we heard of the million army of Xerxes and the small band with which Alexander the Great subdued the whole Orient. Alexander set out with an army of 32,000 men on foot, 5,100 horse-men. That may have been about double the number which Xerxes had. It was not a small band, but by



far the greatest army that up to that time the world had ever seen."

The same method of criticism is applied to numbers in Roman history, particularly the size of Hannibal's army and the size of the hordes of Cimbri and Teutons, which invaded the Roman Empire about 100 B. C. "Many of us may have wandered along the Brenner road between the mountains of Tyrol, and to one or the other of us it may have occurred, perhaps how here 2000 years ago a branch of our common forefathers, the people of the Cimbri, passed by on their way from the raw North into the blessed fields of Italy. The Romans state their strength as at least 200,000 warriors; with women, old people, children and servants it must have been at least 800,000; 800,000 souls who dragged with them their entire household goods on their carts and drove their cattle by their side, all following each other along the narrow rough path over the mountains, where the first few hundreds had already consumed all that was to be obtained near the road of grass and provisions for man and beast. For a distance of 150 miles the pass winds first along the Sill, then the Eisack and Etsch, through the gorges and over the slopes. We now know what it is to move hundreds of thousands, even in easy hill-country, and to provide for them, even with the aid of railways and victualling columns. We reject not only the number handed down by the Romans, but it is clear to us that a mass of 40,000 souls, of which 10,000 are warriors, who thus move along this road, reach the limit of credibility, if it has not already overstepped it. Not through their number, but only through their wild, barbaric bravery did the Cimbri so alarm the Romans."

So of a later invasion of the Empire the writer says: "Of the West Goths, a learned author tells us, that they had been as numerous as the army of Xerxes that was once counted at Doriscus. Let us accept this comparison, but in quite another sense. The course of the Battle of Adrianople shows that certainly they had not more than 15,000 warriors, which indeed may have been the size of Xerxes' army."

"So small were the armies which gave the great turn to the world's history, which put an end to the culture of the ancients, and destroyed what hundreds of years of peace had built round the Mediterranean Sea. No words suffice to picture the horrors of this crisis. For their pleasure, laughingly, as the chronicler tells us, the Alemanni burnt the rich towns of Gaul; the Goths in Thrace cut off the right hand of every peasant who came into their power. The Lombards, in Italy, extirpated the whole aristocracy, and took the castles, houses and possessions for their own chieftains."

Finally a discussion is made of the numbers of those who took part in the conquest of England under William the Conqueror; and the lecture closes as follows: "How did it come about that the Greek citizens and peasants victoriously repelled the invasion of a foreign knighthood, and the Anglo-Saxons were worsted, who displayed, as much before as afterwards, all the highest virtues of warriors?"

"First, a part of the Greeks, the Spartans, were not at all mere citizens; on the contrary, they were themselves a caste of warriors, and as to the Athenians, Corinthians and the other cantons, all of them were in the habit of continually fighting against each other. So the Greeks on the whole were much more martial than the bulk of the Anglo-Saxon people in the eleventh century, and in those eternal fights against each other the Greeks had developed proper tactics, the tactics of the phalanx, as well as the use of their warships, the triremes. The songs of Homer heard and learned by every boy and every man, nourished the spirit of gallantry and heroism, and enflamed it. Exceedingly small as all these states were, every citizen had part in the Government, and estimated this freedom as the highest privilege, to fight and to die for which the poets praised as a holy duty and a glory for eternity."

"The glory was not, as so many generations believed, the victory over great superiority in numbers, but it was the same or even more, victory over a gallant knighthood."

"Important as the numbers are, and altered as many features of the tradition are, the deepest characteristics have remained the same, and they have remained the same, because as we have learned from the preceding remarks, how great a task it is for a civilian population to defend itself against gallant knights or ferocious barbarians."

The organization of the six-year high school course, now widely advocated, and already adopted in a few places, calls for a new inquiry as to the place of history in such a course. It is a question whether the courses outlined by the committee of eight and the committee of seven can be adopted in this scheme.

The history course as given in the Introductory High and High School in Berkeley, Cal., is as follows:

#### Introductory High.

Low Seventh Year—Western Europe, fourth century to 1453.

High Seventh Year—Western Europe and English Colonies, 1453-1763.

Low Eighth Year—American History to 1870.

High Eighth Year—American History and Citizenship.

Low Ninth Year—Pacific History and Local Civics.

High Ninth Year—Pacific History and California.

#### High School.

Low Tenth Year—Western Europe to 800 A.D.

High Tenth Year—Western Europe, 800-1500.

Low Eleventh Year—Western Europe, 1500-1815.

High Eleventh Year—Western Europe, 1815-1900.

Low Twelfth Year—United States History to 1870.

High Twelfth Year—Recent United States History and Civics.

For a grammar-school course to precede this, the following is recommended:

Fourth Year—Western Stories.

Fifth Year—American Stories.

Sixth Year—Stories of Greece and Rome.

## American Ambassador's Letters from Paris, 1870-71

NOTE—The following extracts are from hitherto unpublished letters of Ambassador Elihu B. Washburne to his brother, C. C. Washburne, and the last, to his wife. The originals are in the collection of the State Normal School at La Crosse, Wis., and are here reproduced through the courtesy of Professor Albert H. Sanford, of the Normal School.—EDITOR.

Légation des Etats Unis.

PARIS LE 3 Oct. 1870.

DEAR BRO.:

This is the fifteenth day of the siege. I have been without a word from the outside world until yesterday when Genl. Burnside and Paul Forbes popped in on me. Burnside and Forbes are the only persons that have come into Paris since the siege. \* \* \* I am afraid we are in for a long siege. If they keep the Americans here I shall remain with them. Paris is now very strong and I think will have to be starved out. The prospect for our new republic and for France is very thin. Weather beautiful. Paris is one vast camp with 500,000 men in army, but they seem to do nothing \* \* \*

PARIS, NOV. 20, 1870.

DEAR BRO.:

I wish you would read a despatch that I have sent to Gov. Fish in regard to my protection of the Germans and the expenses connected therewith. Three thousand dollars only will be sufficient and that is only half the amount I have received for passports since the war broke out. I think all persons will agree that the members of my legation should have something extra. \* \* \*

The "job" we had was an awful one, and we all had to work like "niggers" night and day for two months. Of course, I would have nothing for myself, but the members of the legation are entitled to something. It is no part of their duties as Secretaries of Legation for the United States to become Secretaries for fun of the countries in Europe. Of course, all these powers would be glad to pay all these expenses, but our Government could not allow that to be done. \* \* \*

PARIS, Dec. 28, 1870.

DEAR BRO.:

\* \* \* It is very fortunate that I remained here, for never hardly has there been more need of a minister. I am very thankful to the President and Secretary for leaving the matter discretionary with me. I did not hesitate to remain. Of course, I do not suffer personally, for I can put up with almost anything, but I see on every hand enormous suffering. It was hard to be driven out of my house, but I am sheltered by a most kind and generous friend. For my early breakfast I have a cup of coffee, a piece of dry bread and one egg. My second breakfast at one p.m. I take at the Legation and it consists of a piece of

bread and of a very small piece of cheese and a glass of red wine. To-day I have eaten an apple the size of a hen's egg, costing twenty-five cents in gold. For dinner we do very well. Always a piece of ham, a chicken, or a rabbit. We have no potatoes, but we have salad and petit pois. We have live chickens and live rabbits enough in sight to last six weeks. Therefore we are all safe. The cold has been intense for Paris, but I have wood enough to keep up a steaming fire. \* \* \* I am getting alarmed in regard to the poor Germans on my hands. I am caring for more than 1600 to-day and they are still coming in upon me. If this state of things continues, I am really afraid they will freeze or starve in spite of all I can do. I have money from the Prussian government, but the time is near at hand when money will buy neither food nor wood. The wood riots have already commenced. I have two men out to buy all the wood they can find without regard to price "Horrors on horror's head accumulated."

PARIS, Feby. 3, 1871.

\* \* \* "Hail Mighty Day." I have just got a pair of chickens and some fresh butter—only think and let your mouth water. What do you think I had for breakfast this morning; some of this horrible black bread, a little hominy and a slice of pork. But the agony is over. Some provisions came in to-day and we will soon be all right. \* \* \*

BERLIN, Tuesday 10 p.m.

August 21, 1877.

Ma Chère Mamam:

In my postscript written at noon to-day I told you that I had received an invitation to dine with the Emperor at his private palace at Babelsberg at four o'clock p.m. to-day. The invitation was communicated through Mr. Davis, who was also invited. Babelsberg is about an hour by rail from Berlin. Bismarck came to the city last night on his way to Gastin and was only going to remain over here for the day. Learning that I was in town he was kind enough to express a desire to see me, and as he had to go out to see the Emperor he arranged it to go out in the same train and so we met at the cars. He, Von Bülow, the Minister of Foreign Affairs; Mr. Davis and myself occupied the same carriage and I had a first rate opportunity to talk with him for three quarters of an hour. He received me with the greatest possible cordiality and kindness and spoke of the great obligations his Government was under to me for all that I did for his compatriots during the siege and commune of Paris. \* \* \* Reference being made to Mr. Thiers, he spoke of him in exalted terms and said he deserved a monument at the hands of the French people. [They arrived at the Palace.] \* \* \* Before long the master of ceremonies came in and requested me to step into the dining room to be pre-

sented to the Emperor. Nothing could exceed his very hearty and cordial reception. He said it was a very great pleasure to him to see me and to thank me in person for all the services I had rendered to his subjects in France in the day of their greatest trial. \* \* \* The place assigned to me at the table was at his right, the post of honor. \* \* \*

The impression the Emperor made upon me was in the highest degree favorable. I was astonished to find a man eighty-one years old so young looking, hale and vigorous in mind and body. He is exceedingly plain, affable and unpretending, and his whole manner kind and cordial. I can now well see why he is so well beloved by his people. \* \* \*

## Theme Subjects from Greek History

BY KATE M. MONRO, MORRIS HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK.

A comparatively few years ago even up-to-date English teachers were assigning to their defenseless pupils subjects such as Honesty, Success in Life, Truth. Fortunately for both teacher and pupil, these dread titles have been replaced by those that appeal to the child and come within his range of experience.

In history classes, the change from dry-as-dust to vital topics has been much slower; but to-day there is an effort among instructors in this study to find titles for oral and written composition that will combine enjoyment with profit. The best titles, undoubtedly, are those that kindle the imagination, awaken interest in reading and expression, and vivify the past in the mind of the pupil.

In Greek History the following topics have met these requirements and have proved to be much more successful than the old-time subjects:

1. A Walking Trip through Greece.
2. My March from Sparta to Thermopylae.
3. What I Saw at Delphi.
4. My Neighbors, the Arcadians.
5. A Sail through the Aegean Sea, 480 B. C.
6. A Day in Ancient Mycenae.
7. When I Won the Race at Olympia.
8. A Day in a Spartan School.
9. An Athenian's Recollections of a Visit to Sparta.
10. An Appreciation of Solon by a Friend.
11. My Recollections of Pisistratus.
12. Miltiades' Story of His Life.
13. A Persian Soldier's Account of Marathon.
14. Xerxes' Account of Thermopylae.
15. A Day as an Athenian Boy.
16. A Day as an Athenian Matron.
17. Recollections of a Banquet at the Home of Pericles.
18. A Walk on the Acropolis. (State date.)
19. A Helot's Story.
20. When We Sailed with Alcibiades for Sicily.
21. A Spartan's Story of the Day after Leuctra.
22. Philip's Recollections of His Arrival at Thebes.
23. My March with Alexander the Great.

After assigning topics until the class understands the kind of compositions desired, it is advisable to encourage pupils to select their own subjects.

The following theme written by a high school freshman is typical of the better kind of work that will be received from young pupils. This letter, supposedly written in 403 B. C. by an Athenian girl to a friend, shows careful study, imagination and promise.

"Hermione, daughter of Cleon of Athens, to Calanthe, daughter of Ariston of Cyrene, greeting:

"Thou hast, indeed, heard of the battle at Aegospotami and of the events following it; but thou probably dost not know what a terrible effect these events have had upon our city. Though nearly two years have elapsed since the night when we received the news, I remember it as vividly as though it were but yesterday. No one slept that night. We could only think that on the morrow or in a few days at most we were to be subject to those barbarians, the Lacedaemonians. No one in Athens thought that there was even the faintest hope of our city's recovery from that dreadful blow. Our beloved Athens had at last been conquered, the great center of art and letters of all Hellas had been overwhelmed and her citizens mourned.

"During this great disaster to our city, we had our private griefs. My dear, brave father lost his life at Aegospotami. After being dressed in a splendid robe and crowned with garlands, as thou knowest the custom to be in our city, he was buried in a tomb he had lately built on our estate.

"The day following that terrible night after the battle, the public assembly met and resolved to block all our harbors except one, to place guards at various points, and to make all preparations for a siege. My brother, Leander, though scarcely old enough to go, now enlisted as one of our city's defenders. Defence was certainly needed, for, with the exception of the men of Samos, all Hellas had revolted from us.

"Lysander at the head of the Lacedaemonians soon besieged us by land and sea. It was only a question of time when we should have to give up. But alas! what terrible conditions were forced upon us. We had to destroy our long walls and the fortifications of Piraeus, give up all but twelve of our warships, bind ourselves to do Sparta's bidding, and allow the return of many of our worst exiles. Immediately those barbarians began the destruction of our walls to the accompaniment of music and dancing. Thou canst imagine how we felt when we thought we were subject to this rude and uncivilized people.



"Our democracy was soon overthrown and an oligarchy put in its place. Athens was then governed by thirty men whose rule was so oppressive that my countrymen named them the 'Thirty Tyrants,' and a short time ago drove them from our city and again established a democracy.

"Now I want to tell you about Leander's marriage to Helene. After sacrificing to the marriage gods the day before, Leander went at nightfall to Helene's home. She was placed in a carriage between Leander and his best friend. She was dressed in holiday clothes and wore a thick veil which completely covered her face. She was then brought to our home where the marriage ceremonies were to take place.

"After the newly married couple had bathed in water from the sacred fountain and had partaken of the marriage feast, Helene was led to the woman's apartments by my mother and the door was closed after her by Leander.

"Our home life is very happy now because of this marriage.

"I send thee wishes for happiness and may your city never know the suffering of subjection to a tyrant power."

The pupil who wrote the above interested herself, the class and the teacher in her composition; and surely derived as much good as she would have from a theme on the Results of the Battle of Aegospotami, the main subject of the letter.

Let history instructors follow the excellent example of English instructors and lay aside those tiresome topics that have bored generations. Let them realize that students would enjoy the writing of history compositions if encouraged to do so. Let them

go in imagination back to their own school days when they were commanded to write ten or twelve pages on the results of the battle of Marathon, the causes of the Peloponnesian War, or the march of Alexander, or some other subject whose interest was dulled by the realization that both the class and the teacher had already heard too much about these great events. With remembrance of those hours of vain attempts to rival the monotonous accounts of the old-fashioned text-books or minutes of suspense lest the teacher refuse to accept our flimsy excuses for work not done, we shall have sympathy for the boy who desires, at least, a new point of view.

The amount of outside reading and good, hard, accurate thinking a child will do when he feels that he is giving his classmates some new information or some old knowledge in fresh form, is often surprising; whereas the necessity for acquaintance with his subject will be deeply impressed upon him when the themes are read aloud and criticised; for pupils are very quick to notice anachronisms or any flagrant mistakes.

The exercise, therefore, of writing on topics such as those suggested in this article, is not an easy one for the boy who wishes to bluff. It is not intended as a mild form of entertainment. On the contrary, it is meant to awaken the child's imagination so that he may really picture and understand these wonderful Greeks; it is meant to arouse interest so that he may read extensively of his own accord and remember what he has read. It is only by attaining such results that the teaching of Ancient History accomplishes its purpose of helping the student to appreciate the deeds and the culture of the past.

## American History in Entrance Examinations

BY PROFESSOR EDGAR DAWSON, HUNTER COLLEGE, NEW YORK CITY.

The following paragraph from the New York "Evening Post" (November 22, 1913) notices the annual meeting of the College Board:

The committee on examination ratings presented a report, in which the Board's history examinations were discussed. It was pointed out that the results in history were poorer than in any other subject, and that secondary schools were evidently not doing the work called for by the requirements recommended by the American Historical Association. It was said by some that through the influence of the American Historical Association the College Entrance Examination Board had been used as a lever in an attempt to elevate unduly the standards of history-teaching, and that the standards set up were unattainable, not only from the point of view of the maturity of the students in the secondary schools, but also from the point of view of the time that can be given to history in the program of study in even the very best schools.

The above quotation may afford an excuse and a text for another paper on the examination annually conducted by the College Entrance Examination Board in American history and civics. The answer books of the candidates who take this examination

are the best available material from which to find out what is being taught to young persons in the secondary schools under the name of history and civics. The candidates are graduates of all kinds of schools; they hail from all parts of the country; they come up with all varieties and degrees of preparation or lack of it. The Board now requires a statement from each candidate, giving the amount of time he has spent on the subject, the type of school (private or public, etc.) he has attended, the text-book he has used, and other similar information. It is therefore possible to form a fair estimate of the result attained in schools that give a reasonable amount of time to the subject. It is unfortunately not possible yet to find out the kind of teachers the candidates have worked under.

Our quotation has to do not so much with efficient teaching in general as with the relation of history in the secondary school to the general scheme of a four-year course conducted for the purpose of meeting the requirements for admission to college. The colleges generally state their requirements in units, demand-

ing fourteen or fifteen for admission without conditions. Each unit represents the result of a year's work in a class that recites five times a week. In a few subjects recognition is given to half units, which represent the work of three periods a week for a year, or five periods a week for a semester. On this basis the secondary school course of four years with twenty recitations a week would represent sixteen units; the colleges allowing a leeway of one or two in formulating their demands. Many colleges require four units of Latin, which means that Latin must be taken five times a week for four years, and this is the common practice. The requirement in the modern languages and in mathematics is similarly expressed. While the unit cannot be regarded as representing a very definite quantity of preparation because of the varying efficiency of schools and of individual teachers in the same school, as well as the varying application of students in the same class; it is a convenient means of arriving at some common ground on which to discuss questions of admission to college. It is pretty generally recognized by those who work with the problems of secondary education that a college admission unit represents what the average secondary school child can accomplish in a year in a class to which he devotes about one-fourth of his energy while in school. If he is carrying four-unit subjects, each should occupy about one-fourth of his time. This is a convention that it is fair to treat as generally accepted.

American history and civics is a one-unit subject. The relation of the American Historical Association to the work of the College Entrance Examination Board and to the requirement in history for admission to college has been almost limited to the work of outlining courses in which the work in history recommended for secondary schools has been so divided that its results could be expressed in units. In each of the reports presented by the Association it has been recommended that five hours a week be given to American history and civics; and it would be ridiculous to reduce this subject to a half unit, as has been suggested. Aside from recommending such outlines, I know of little else the Historical Association has done or tried to do to elevate the standards of history teaching in the secondary schools. It was the colleges who decided that one-fifteenth of the boy's preparation for college should be done in the field of history. Some of them offered to accept one unit; others require at least one unit and will accept two or more units in making up the required fourteen or fifteen. It was the work of the Historical Association only to say that if a unit is to be used in reckoning credits in history, it would be well to give one unit to American history and civics; one to ancient history; one to European history, or to some division of that subject. The Association has had little or nothing to do with the amount of work to be put into the one-year course of five recitations a week; or with the difficulty of the examinations set; or with the strictness with which the answer-books should be read. It has fallen somewhat short of what seems to be its duty, in that it

has not defined closely enough what the several courses should contain. Its fault is rather one of omission than of commission.

Since a unit represents a time assignment of five periods a week for one year, and since American history and civics is a one-unit subject, it seems that the amount of time that "can be given to history in the program of study of even the very best schools" is not open to discussion. It is pretty definitely fixed. Yet as a matter of fact, many of the best schools give to history (whether American, ancient or English) only three periods a week; and then they are disposed to complain if their graduates are not able to pass. To insist that students who have been given a three-hour course must be able to pass an examination which has been set for a five-hour course seems to be highly unreasonable, if not actually unfair, to the students who are asked to do the impossible, to the teachers of history, and to the colleges who accept the unit as representing the five-hour course. Bret Harte tells us that the ways of the Heathen Chinee are peculiar, but are they any more peculiar than those of a principal who says that history cannot have five hours in his program because there isn't time for it; and yet gives to physics seven hours (physics being also a one-unit subject) because without seven hours the graduates will be unable to pass the examination? Of two one-unit subjects (history and physics), the one can have only three periods because the other must have seven, even though more than two-thirds of the candidates in the subject thus slighted fail when they come up for the examination. It is difficult to argue with this type of mind, or to discuss its position without impatience. One is almost disposed to hope that a greater and greater number of candidates from three-hour courses will fail until our friends, the principals, begin to see the light.

Our paragraph says that the standard set up for the requirement in history cannot be met in the time available for the subject; but also says that even if time were available, the maturity of the students in the secondary schools is not sufficient for what is required of them in this subject. We have no such definite measure of maturity as we have of time in the unit. Our discussion of this part of the charge therefore must be more general, and more must be left to differences of opinion and to probability. One answer to the position taken in the paragraph is the simple one, that as a matter of fact more than one teacher says that he has never had a student fail in the Board's history examination who had done adequate work—that is, work which would have passed him in other one-unit subjects. Speaking of this year's questions in American history and civics, a secondary school man who has sent many students up to the Board's examination says, "From the standpoint of one who is engaged in fitting boys for college, I must say that the paper seemed a fair test, and failure to meet it must be explained by the character of the preparation." Many pupils receive marks in the eighties and not a few in the nineties,

which shows that some students have sufficient maturity to pass with a wide margin to spare. Of course there are varying degrees of maturity and of intelligence. The college entrance examinations are conducted on the hypothesis that some persons are to be excluded, and that all should be excluded who have not prepared themselves for college work. The examinations cannot be brought down to the level of the idle son of the idle rich, else there were no reason for conducting them. The question whether the examinations require from the secondary school boy too great maturity can probably best be answered through a consideration of the questions put to him. The paper in "American History" for this year is printed on page 258.

It must be conceded at once that this paper would be too difficult for a class in an elementary school. Its object is to separate those who have had only an elementary training from those who have had also some secondary education and thus make it possible for the colleges to reject the former as not yet ready for admission. Now since the facts handled in both elementary and secondary schools are pretty much the same, this differentiation can be effected only by asking for a different treatment of these facts. From the elementary school pupil one generally asks only for memory or a very simple organization of information; but from the more advanced student about to enter upon his college course, posing as able to progress into higher fields of learning, one may properly demand some power to reason and some ability to select and organize facts. It is true that many persons object to this more advanced sort of question. The word "compare" has been put on the black list of these persons, not to mention "economic conditions," "social conditions," and the like. Nevertheless it seems reasonable to assume that the sort of boy the colleges should welcome ought to have maturity enough to answer the second question in the first group. To do so he must not only know something of Bacon's rebellion, but he must be able to grasp the discontent that caused it, and then discuss the causes of this discontent. Another sort of question is 6, which requires the candidate to collect facts from various parts of the country's history and put them together in one argument. This also assumes that the student has been taught to grasp larger ideas than the mere description of an event. If this requires too great maturity, then it is impossible to differentiate between an examination for primary pupils and for secondary ones.

Turning from the form of the question to the content, in group one from which the candidate must select two questions to answer, certainly no one who has had any sort of a course in American history can balk at question 1. In fact, about ninety per cent. of the candidates did select this question and answered it with fair success. It may be interesting to note that not quite so large a proportion of the Western papers as of the Eastern ones selected this question. About seventy per cent. of the candidates wrote on question 4, leaving questions 2 and 3 to only a few

papers, question 3 receiving the least attention of all. Few of the text-books give an interesting treatment of education in the colonies, and it was to be expected that good students who are sure of their ground would neglect this question. In fact, those who tried to answer it were generally rather weak on most parts of the examination. Of those who tried question 2, many devoted their attention to describing the rebellion itself, which was not called for. Is it not true that this group of questions on the colonial period may be answered adequately by a student who has been grounded in the great settlement movement (question 1), and in the causes of the revolution (question 4)? Can one claim to know anything of American history without knowing these two movements? It was not necessary to offer alternatives to these two questions, but they were given (2) for the specialist in political evolution, and (3) for the enthusiast for social conditions. The latter was answered by at least one candidate so well that the answer received a perfect mark.

The questions in group two are on the national period, and it is worthy of notice if it is not a source of surprise that question 5 was attempted by only a small proportion of the candidates. Its subject is probably second to none in the amount of attention given it by students of American history. Most of the papers answered the current events questions 6 and 9, and some answered question 7, though many of these latter did not read the question carefully. This failure to read the question carefully is a common error and accounts for not a few poor papers. The question calls for Douglas's public career, yet candidates made a frantic effort to tell something of his boyhood and youth, often with rather amusing results. In fact, this effort to discover indications that biography is being taught produced in almost every paper that tried to answer the question rather disappointing results. As in group one, the questions in group two are so framed that a candidate who has had anything like a thorough course can find topics that are perfectly familiar to him. It is perfectly fair to say that boys cannot master a large number of subjects, however important they may be, and that therefore so long as American history covers a field as large and complex as at present, the examination may be very difficult even though events of great importance are selected for the questions. But if an examination is to be conducted in American history, it does seem difficult to find topics that would be less well known than the "compact theory," with attention called to it by the Webster-Hayne debates; American participation in arbitration, with the atmosphere full of the peace movement; the biography of one of the leading figures in the important period immediately leading to the Civil War; and the recent events that had shown the United States to be a world power. A student may be supposed to study American history because he is interested in the history of his country. If he is, he can certainly remember and use such instances for question 8 as the better answer papers did—the Spanish war; the Venezuela affair;



the tour of our fleet around the world; Mr. Roosevelt's intercession in the Russo-Japanese war, etc.

That candidates did not know what "arbitration" meant is not so much to their discredit or to that of the paper as to the degree of accuracy with which we use words, both young and old. Papers contained such statements as "This was really arbitration, since both sides yielded;" "settled by arbitration rather than by force," and as illustrations were found various treaties and compromises, even those within our own country like that of 1820. Every one hears arbitration talked about in the most casual way, and few take the trouble to define the word clearly in their own minds.

Group three may be let pass as civics. If it does so pass, two-sevenths instead of two-fifths of the examination is given to this field. Whatever it is, whether constitutional history or civics, the questions call for the discussion of topics without which one could not know anything worth knowing of American history. The three great supreme court cases and the impeachment of Johnson, about which centered the struggle of the early reconstruction period, are both matters that are simply the stuff American history is made of. Can any one think of them as demanding too great maturity in the person examined? Question 10 savors a little too much of the newspaper, and furthermore, is somewhat ambiguous. Two college professors of government argued somewhat sharply over the question whether this might not be interpreted to mean changes in governmental organization within the territorial limits of the United States; and therefore whether changes in municipal government might not be included in the answer. The question was probably framed to ask for changes in the organization of the Federal government. Either interpretation makes an easy question; but it is unfortunate to let such ambiguities slip into the paper. Its newspaper quality suggests the propriety of uttering a lamentation over the attention given to newspapers in some schools and colleges. There is a place in Hades reserved for teachers who give way to their diabolical instincts sufficiently to advise young persons to waste their time in wading through the jungle of newspaper information under the claim that their faculties are being trained. One cannot find fault with those who advise pupils to read such weeklies as the "Outlook" or the "Nation," or such monthlies as "The Review of Reviews," or "World's Work;" but what profit can a young mind with little time for reading get from the average daily paper, or the daily paper above the average to make up for the neglect of such periodicals as I have mentioned and the really great works of history, recent and earlier? It is fortunate that a considerable majority of the candidates selected questions 9 and 11. This is particularly true of the papers which received a mark over 65. Almost twice as large a proportion of the papers selected at random tried question 10 as of the papers receiving passing marks.

If geography questions are to be asked at all, 12 and 13 cannot be said to call for places that the pupil should not be able to locate. A much larger number

attempted to answer 13 than 12, and doubtless it is somewhat easier. Gettysburg, Yorktown, Gadsden Purchase, and Cambridge, Mass., were easily located by nearly all the best papers. In fact, the geography questions seem to be finding better and better answers every year. It is an encouraging sign after so many years of effort on the part of those who believe that history cannot be properly taught unless it is located somewhere in space.

In the November, 1913, issue of this magazine an account was given of the method of framing these papers in history, and also of the method pursued by the readers in grading the answers. In the light of the facts there presented and of the topics called for by this and previous papers, it is bewildering to be told that the requirements in history demand a maturity which the secondary school pupil cannot supply. Most of the work of both the examiners and the readers is done by secondary school teachers of recognized standing in their profession, men who know what the boys and girls are capable of; and they do not hesitate to say that the difficulty is with the boy who does not want to work hard, with the atmosphere of our schools and homes which does not encourage a boy to do the sort of work that builds character and tissue, and with the colleges which are so anxious for students that if they cannot get what they want, are willing to take what they can get. It is to be hoped that some strength will be found somewhere that is durable enough to resist the demand that the history examination be made a weak place in the college entrance requirements, so that the lame ducks may get through without too great strain either on their teachers or themselves.

The annual report of the American Historical Association has recently been sent to members. It contains a report of the twenty-eighth annual meeting of the association and of the ninth annual meeting of the Pacific Coast Branch. Many of the papers read at the general sessions and at special conferences are reproduced in full, together with notes upon the discussions aroused. Among the conferences reported are those on military history, on American history, on archival economy and on historical societies. The thirteenth report of the public archives commission contains an account of the conference of archivists, and reports upon the archives of Louisiana and Montana. The tenth report of the historical manuscripts commission contains the letters of William Vans Murray to John Quincy Adams, 1797-1803, edited by W. C. Ford. A valuable part of the volume is a classified list of publications of the association, 1884-1912.

The July number of the "American Historical Review" contains three papers upon English history: "Some Instances of Concentration of Representatives in England," by A. B. White; "Legal Materials as Sources for the Study of Modern English History," by A. L. Cross; and "Committees of Council and the Cabinet, 1660-1688," by E. R. Turner. The intrigues of General Wilkinson with the Spaniards are treated by I. J. Cox. An important series of documents relates to "Estimates of the Value of Slaves, 1815."

## College Entrance Examination Board's Questions, 1914

The following are the papers set by the College Entrance Examination Board for the June, 1914, examinations. Special attention is called to the note at the end of the last paper.—EDITOR.

### HISTORY A—ANCIENT HISTORY

#### GROUP I. (Answer one question only)

1. Name in succession the great nations in the Euphrates valley to the time of Alexander the Great. What contributions to civilization were made by one of these nations?
2. From what country did the founders of Carthage come? For what were they famous? What were the elements of strength and what the elements of weakness among the Carthaginians?

#### GROUP II. (Answer three questions only)

3. Describe the career (a) of Themistocles; (b) of Aristides; and (c) compare these men as to statesmanship and character.
4. What was the nature of the Spartan supremacy after 404 B. C., and what were its effects upon Greece? Show how the supremacy came to an end.
5. What did the Greeks mean by the following terms: tyrant, oligarchy, ostracism, democracy, autonomy?
6. Show influences of sea power on the history of Greece, giving concrete illustrations.

#### GROUP III. (Answer one question only)

7. Give a careful account of the magistrates in the Roman Republic, indicating the time or period for which your description holds good.
8. What part did Caesar, Pompey, Augustus, Claudius, and Trajan play in the territorial development of the Roman Empire?

#### GROUP IV. (Answer one question only)

9. In what respects was the reign of Marcus Aurelius important?
10. Comment upon the statement that "Rome's greatest contribution to civilization was her law"? What men were famous in the history of Roman law?

#### GROUP V. (Answer one question only)

11. On map 46a mark as definitely as possible the principal seaports, the main routes of trade, and the chief grain-exporting lands in the ancient world.
12. On map 46a mark as definitely as possible the territory under Roman control about 133 B. C. Distinguish clearly the territory gained during the Punic Wars.

### HISTORY B—MEDIEVAL AND MODERN EUROPEAN HISTORY

#### GROUP I. (Answer one question only)

1. Give an account of the medieval universities under the following heads: (a) origin; (b) famous universities; (c) subjects taught and methods of study; (d) student life.

2. Describe fully the policy and work of Innocent III.

#### GROUP II. (Answer two questions only)

3. Describe fully the reign of Francis I of France.
4. What problems were before the Council of Trent and how did the Council attempt to solve them?
5. Explain why Philip II of Spain delayed for thirty years his attack on England in the reign of Elizabeth.
6. Name the most important battles and treaties of the "Second Hundred Years' War between England and France," 1689-1815, and give the terms of at least one treaty.

#### GROUP III. (Answer three questions only)

7. Over what countries and when have the following families ruled: Hapsburg, Hohenzollern, Romanoff, Stuart, Bourbon? Mention the name of one ruler in each of the families and indicate briefly for what he was famous.
8. Name in order and briefly describe the different forms of government which France has had since 1815.
9. What were the causes of the Crimean War? What principles of international law were asserted in the treaty which closed the war?
10. Give a brief history of the Boers in South Africa.

#### GROUP IV. (Answer one question only)

11. On map 46 mark as definitely as possible five of the following: Adrianople, Balkan Mountains, Constantinople, Crimea, Suez Canal, Tripoli.
12. Mark on map 81b the names and boundaries of the leading German colonial possessions throughout the world.

### HISTORY C—ENGLISH HISTORY

#### GROUP I. (Answer one question only)

1. Name three great churchmen of England living before 1215, who were also great statesmen. Describe carefully the work of one of them.
2. Show that you have a definite knowledge of five of the following, writing not less than four or five lines on each: Constitutions of Clarendon, Cade's rebellion, Curia Regis, Joan of Arc, Lollard, Statute of Praemunire, Wars of the Roses.

#### GROUP II. (Answer one question only)

3. "The Petition of Right, the Habeas Corpus Act, and the Bill of Rights are the complements or the reassertions of the Magna Charta." Give the main provisions of each of these documents and then explain what the quotation means.
4. Name four prominent literary men in the Age of Elizabeth and the most famous works of each. Indicate briefly the nature or content of one of these works which you have read.

#### GROUP III. (Answer one question only)

5. It has been said that "The defeat of the British at Yorktown had a profound effect upon the constitutional development of Great Britain herself." Explain this statement.
6. In what respects is England's present treatment of her colonies different from that of the period 1763-1775?

#### GROUP IV. (Answer three questions only)

7. Write fully on one of the following: Duke of Marlborough, John Bright, Robert Peel.
8. What was Burke's attitude toward the American Revolution? What "source" have you for your knowledge? What was Burke's attitude toward the French Revolution?
9. Why was the Reform Bill of 1832 necessary? Give an account of its provisions.
10. State the provisions of the important measures for Ireland's relief advocated by Gladstone.
11. Indicate briefly how England got control of Australia. What is included in the Australian Commonwealth? What are the main features of its constitution?

#### GROUP V. (Answer one question only)

12. On map 81b indicate with names, and boundaries or locations, the possessions which England gained in the eighteenth century.

13. On map 81b indicate with names, and locations or boundaries, the possessions of Great Britain on the way from England to India.

#### HISTORY D—AMERICAN HISTORY AND CIVIL GOVERNMENT

##### GROUP I. (Answer two questions only)

1. Describe and explain the part played by the Dutch in the history of early America.
2. Describe the causes of discontent which culminated in Bacon's rebellion.
3. Give a careful account of education in the colonies. (If you have done special reading outside the text-book on the development in a single colony or state, you may confine your account to that state, giving the author and title of books used.) What colleges were founded before the Revolution?
4. What were the causes, provisions, and results of the Stamp Act? Give the arguments in its favor.

##### GROUP II. (Answer two questions only)

5. Explain what is meant by the "compact theory" of the constitution. Name three prominent advocates of the theory before 1840. In what documents is the theory set forth? State concisely the arguments in its favor.
6. In what cases in the nineteenth century has the United States resorted to arbitration? Give an account of one of these cases, indicating the question at stake, its importance, and the result. Mention other ways in which the United States has shown interest in arbitration.
7. Trace the public career of Stephen A. Douglas.
8. Describe briefly three events since 1890 that have emphasized the position of the United States as a world power.

##### GROUP III. (Answer two questions only)

9. What were the causes of the impeachment of President Johnson? Describe his trial.
10. Mention several important changes in the government of the United States which have been prominently discussed since 1900? What are the arguments for and against two of these? What changes have been adopted?
11. What was the nature of two of the following decisions of the United States Supreme Court? What is the constitutional importance of one decision? (a) Dred Scott Case. (b) McCulloch vs. Maryland. (c) Dartmouth College Case.

##### GROUP IV. (Answer one question only)

12. On map 88b mark as definitely as possible the boundaries of the Oregon territory in 1850. In your answer book indicate how the northern boundary was determined.
13. On map 88b mark as definitely as possible four of the following: Gettysburg, Yorktown, Gadsden Purchase, both Kansas and Nebraska as outlined by the Kansas-Nebraska act of 1854, site of the earliest American college.

EDITOR'S NOTE—Each one of the examination papers printed above contained the following requests:

In each answer give dates.

In your answer to at least one question mention authors and titles of any books which you have used, in addition to your text-book, on the general subject referred to in the question or on some phase of that subject. In your answer to the question selected, include results of your reading outside the text-book. Indicate the nature or content of one book other than your text-book and point out how the book has helped you.

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## The War in the Schools

Newspaper reports from various parts of the country show that the European war is making trouble for school administrators. In Boston, discussion of the war is said to have been forbidden in the schools; in Philadelphia, not only European history, but also European geography has been proscribed. In other parts of the country similar action has been taken. On the other hand, in certain high schools, a serious study of the war is being made.

Undoubtedly the history teacher and the school administrator are confronted with a unique problem. A large proportion of our school pupils come from foreign parentage, or from parents removed only one generation from foreign immigrants. Separated only by a few years, or even a few months, from residence in some of the nations now at war, their sympathies are still alert for the home country, and their animosities are those of the fatherland. Under these circumstances the task of the teacher of current events is peculiarly hard. It is no wonder that many school administrators have taken the easiest solution of the difficulty, by simply forbidding all study and discussion of the war.

For the teacher who has not absolute control of his or her sympathies, nor complete control of the class, this is the only reasonable solution. It is worse than folly to arouse racial and national sentiments, and it is, too, directly contrary to the sound advice given to the country by President Wilson. Better abstain from all mention of the war, than arouse in our American communities the bitterness of the European struggle. The writer was once kindly cautioned by a well-meaning business man who had heard some gossip concerning a class in American history attended largely by school teachers. "Be careful in your lectures," he said, "you are reported as being too favorable to the British in the discussion of the American Revolution!" If one may not express an impartial judgment upon events happening one hundred and fifty years ago, how much more difficult is it to do so in relation to the present war.

Yet there is another aspect of the matter. The United States is essentially a peaceful nation, and in the present struggle it aims to maintain a high standard of neutrality. These principles of peace and neutrality require a high order of intelligence and great self-control, individual and collective. Wars can be brought on most easily among primitive and uneducated peoples and in states possessing monarchical governments. The modern republic, based on sound economic foundations, of which the United States is the best example, furnishes in its electorate of educated men and women the strongest force in the world opposed to militarism. And to-day the warring states of Europe are paying this country a remarkable compliment—the submission to the American government and people of the causes justifying the taking up of arms, the reasons for unusual military measures, and the proof, supposed or real, of inhuman practices by their enemies.

The neutral position of the United States calls also for a high degree of self-control. President Wilson's reply to the Belgian commissioners sets an example in this respect for the entire country. As individuals and as a nation we must sink our prejudices and sympathies in the strictest neutrality. For war means for us not only foreign contest, but domestic strife among our composite population. If we are to preserve the peace of our homes amidst the devastation of Europe, we must adhere to our neutral policy.

Any teacher who is sobered by a consideration of these facts, and whose own personal sympathies and antipathies are held wisely in check, has many lessons to draw from the present war for the benefit of his pupils. Self-control is a conscious fact; only by instilling in our pupils' minds the horrors of war, and the duties of neutrality, can the child be placed in sympathy with the policy of his country. It is the province of the present-day school teacher to take the unlettered foreigner and the child of thoughtless American parents and create out of them intelligent, self-reliant citizens. Abundant instances for such lessons are to be found in the present situation. The teacher, especially in elementary schools, will not try to expound the causes of the war, for there she will surely be upon debatable ground; but she can point out the devastation caused by the war, as shown, for instance, in the descriptions given by Richard Harding Davis in the newspapers of September 17th.

A careful study of the neutrality proclamations of the President, the official regulations concerning belligerent trade and men-of-war, and the public utterances of the President will show the duties as well as the advantages of neutrality. A study, too, may well be made of the economic results of the war, and the opportunities which seem to be opening before the American producer and merchant. The adoption of the moratorium, not only by European, but also by South American and Asiatic states, and our own practical refusal to pay debts in Europe by closing our stock exchanges, should be explained to students. The effect of the war on commerce and industrial production should not be neglected.

Along such lines as these must the discussion of the war be limited in many of our communities. The teacher must seek to create and train a true American spirit of neutrality and peacefulness.

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The University of North Carolina has issued a manual on "Public Discussion and Debate." The purpose of this is "to stimulate discussion of public questions, chiefly by high school students, also by community clubs and public organizations." The manual gives a list of suitable topics for debate relating to questions of immediate interest in North Carolina as well as those of national significance. It gives analyses of the questions, arguments pro and con and references to easily available material. As a result of the activity of the university, a high school debating union has been organized, including more than 100 schools.

## The History Teacher as Viewed by the History Student

BY OSCAR H. WILLIAMS, CRITIC TEACHER, PRACTICE SCHOOL, INDIANA UNIVERSITY.

In connection with practice teaching of history, at Indiana University, along with other required work is a brief course in the theory and method of history teaching in the high school. This course is usually elected by history majors, of senior standing. On completing the work for the bachelor's degree, these persons expect to become teachers of history in the high schools of the State.

For four years it has been my privilege to direct this work and to give these prospective teachers something of a vision of their task. Last year it occurred to me that these young candidates, nearing the close of their undergraduate training, and at the threshold of their responsible work, could furnish some valuable sidelights upon the very work whose responsibilities they are soon to assume. Suppose they were asked to reflect seriously but sympathetically upon their own experiences as high school students of history, might they not contribute some pertinent suggestions relative to teachers and teaching of history? Even though their judgments possessed merely negative value, might not these judgments contain some suggestion which could be put to constructive uses? Most of these teachers in the making were graduates of Indiana high schools, wherein fairly uniform conditions are found as regards program, equipment, and preparation of teachers. Moreover, the four years of college work intervening between them and their high school experiences might serve to give them perspective and maturity of judgment in weighing values. They were young people of considerably more than average grade of intelligence, wholly capable of giving the subject the serious consideration it merits. Why not utilize the strategic importance of their estimates of current methods of teaching history?

It was reflections such as these that induced me to give each student who enrolled in the course a copy of the following communication:

"I am making a somewhat unusual request of you, viz., that you write me a letter, in which you give me an intimate personal account of your own history work when you were student in high school.

"You may approach the subject from any angle you like. Perhaps you will wish to give a brief setting, an outline of the course in history and a general survey of the school.

"But most of all I am interested in how the history work impressed you at various stages. What features of the work made the lasting impression? When and how did you acquire an interest in the study of history? What elements in the teaching of the subject were of greatest value? What ones were of least value? If next year you were called to teach history in a good high school, what of these experiences would you foster in your students? What would you studiously avoid? Something of an autobiography, detailing your experiences as a student of history in the high school, is chiefly desired. Your impressions of teachers and teaching, of materials and methods of work, of results and satisfactions attained, will be most highly prized.

"Your letter will be considered as personal so far as names are concerned. It and others like it will, it is believed, furnish a basis for conclusions with respect to history teaching of a new and valuable kind. These conclusions will be shared with you."

The students to whom this letter was given were assured that their answers should have no bearing upon their standing in the course. Whether they answered at all was made

optional with each member of the course. Most of them did respond, many writing highly interesting and illuminating replies. A considerable number of these personal narratives are now before me, and as I look them over they bear the marks of such genuine frankness and sympathy in dealing with the problems of the teacher from the student's point of view that I am moved to share some of them with other teachers of history.

The writers often enter with fine appreciation and accurate perception of values into the interpretation of their high school work in history. Apparently they are happy to speak in confidence of their impressions of high school history as a subject of discipline and culture. Not all of them learned to understand the worthwhileness of history in high school courses. Many made their "self-discovery" through history after entering college. Indeed, not a few approached the subject in the secondary school with positive dread. This state of mind was not entirely relieved by subsequent experiences under incompetent or untrained instructors. "An incident of my freshman year suggests to me now that the course must have lacked definite organization or that the history teacher experienced some reformation at this particular time," writes a serious-minded youth. "Having had the elementary history course of a typical district school, on entering high school I received my first introduction to ancient history. After struggling two months with the new subject, I well remember the sense of relief which I experienced when the class received the information that history was to be discontinued for a year—a relief never equalled until I finally completed the course at the end of the sophomore year." Yet the mere fact that this young man, as indeed all the writers, later chose history as his major subject in the University is evidence that he had come to find satisfaction in this most human of studies.

The one factor of paramount importance, in the opinion of these young critics, is the personality and equipment of the history teacher. "If I were to name the one thing of greatest help in the course," says a happy enthusiast, "I should say it was the personality of the teacher as well as his broad scholarship." "He was master of his subject, and it was a common saying among the students that he would make you like the subject whether you wanted to or not," he comments further along. Who shall say that mastery of subject is not the chief element in the teacher's helpful influence? Sympathy and personal contact no doubt play their part, but these young critics are intolerant of the ill-prepared, and enthusiastic over the teacher who knows his subject.

No insight into history teaching is more suggestive than that afforded in the letters by glimpses of characteristic types of teachers of history. Witness this portrait of the over-precise and exacting teacher:

"This teacher had a perfect mastery of the mechanics of history teaching. She was accurate and very analytical. I came to recognize the value of accuracy. The correct pronunciation of proper names and definition of terms was a hobby.

"In these courses I performed the requisite amount of work,—recitations, reports, notebook and outside reading. I was thoroughly drilled in definition of terms and in identification of proper names so that I fancy I made no glaring misstatements of fact. In truth, the mechanism was so nicely adjusted that one had only to do as told to gain a 'pass' in the course.

"The teacher was admirable in her method so far as getting the facts was concerned. She had developed the 'quiz' to a high degree of perfection. To my mind she always seemed to be far more interested in ascertaining the pupils' knowledge of the subject than in adding to it. Comment she rarely made. She was too busy cross-examining. As a result, interest,—that is, interest in the subject and not merely in the credit for the work—was not greatly in evidence. Informal lectures by the teacher I often craved. Descriptions and characterizations of historical figures always aroused interest on my part. . . .

"I have since thought we were too closely supervised. It seemed to be taken for granted that we were not qualified to study according to our own method. As a result we were too dependent. For myself, I came to depend on the teacher as final on all subjects, and was left with little desire to carry on further investigation. I was given no initiative for individual work."

Contrasting types of individuality in teachers stand out strong in the following letter, which I copy almost entire:

"I was a sophomore in high school when I took my first history. When I bought a Myers' 'Ancient History,' it meant no more to me than 'Caesar's Wars,' Wells' 'Essentials,' or any one of a half dozen other texts. But it was not long before I began to look upon the history text a little differently from the others. This preference for history was, I can safely say, due chiefly to the subject itself. But the teacher played a most important part. Our instructor was a history student who has since taken his doctor's degree. He had a broad knowledge of history and ideas of his own for instilling into others an interest in and knowledge of the subject. In class we did not seem to be learning a lot of mere facts about which none of us knew more than the author's statements. We seemed rather to be just talking things over. Our instructor was never very strict on details at the daily recitations. The things we learned each day were things big enough that he trusted we would remember them until the month's examination and probably longer. Often after a brief discussion of the lesson he would pull down a volume of Herodotus and read us an entertaining account of the customs of the Babylonians or the Egyptians. Or again we would go with Ulysses into some strange land. In this way we not only learned something of these great works but were brought much nearer to the subjects of our study. The characters mentioned took the form of real men and women.

"My half year's work with this teacher gave me an interest in history that I would have been long in getting under a mediocre teacher.

"My next half year's work (latter half of ancient history) was taken under another teacher. His idea was to drill the facts into his pupils. And this he did. We had maps, outlines and note-books galore. Everything had to be just so. When we finished Roman history I answered an identification list of about a hundred items, missing only two. Most of these I promptly forgot, and there remained no lasting impression to take their place.

"I took my year of Mediaeval-Modern history under a teacher who knew the history well enough, but who was not a good class-room instructor. Things dragged. There were no interesting discussions, no more reading from the great writers, no more pictures. Now and then our first teacher would take charge of the class for the day. These occasions were rare treats. I believe that had I not already been interested in the study and reading of history I would soon have come to regard it as a sort of necessary evil. By this time I was beginning to enjoy outside reading. . . . In my reading I seldom followed the work in class. I was always behind. While we were studying mediaeval and modern history I was reading ancient history. I came upon

a volume of Herodotus and read six of his nine books, also the Iliad, many myths, and the like.

"In my senior year I had American history under a man, an M.A. from one of the best State universities in the Middle West, who knew about as little about history as it is safe for any American citizen to know, to say nothing of one attempting to teach it. Quite a few students soon caught on and took more or less fun in asking questions he could not answer. It became our hobby to point out differences in the text and other reliable authorities. He would answer, 'We are studying this book, you know.' This teacher graded a notebook on penmanship, and never looked inside to see what it contained in the way of history notes. He never referred to a map during the course, and the big chart stood 'The United States at 1800' while we traveled from Columbus to Roosevelt. He installed 'Current Events,' that sheet which a self-respecting youngster in the third grade would disdain to read. Weekly we wasted an hour talking about the visit of some nobleman to somewhere, and the change of fashion in hats, while such events as the change of ministry in England or Reciprocity Treaties went by unnoticed. . . . This year's work I regarded as a joke, and have not yet changed my notion of it."

All of us may not feel inclined to accept in their entirety the standards implied in the estimates of this somewhat sophisticated youth. The teacher who is "never very strict on details" in daily recitations is quite apt to overlook the finer discipline of his subject and even to degenerate into the mere discursive Rambler. In addition we believe the high school instructor should, as the second and less-improved of the above-mentioned teachers, aim in some degree to drill the facts into his pupils. Yet on the whole we must admit the soundness in the point of view of the youthful critic. To cultivate a taste for historical reading, to create interest in the cultural and humanistic aspects of history, to kindle a passion for the fascinating story of mankind, constitute far more vital educational results for the adolescent of the secondary school than can come from any mere drill.

Perhaps the elements in the make-up of the ideal teacher, as viewed by these student critics, are best reflected in the portrayal of the history teacher whom they themselves expect to approximate. For many, no finer model exists than the teacher who has most inspired in them a love of historical study. For all, the teacher's function is positive, not merely passive; aggressive, not alone suggestive. Above all the teacher must, they say, possess ability to arouse enthusiasm, interest, desire for further knowledge of the most living of human studies. Plenty of color and action must characterize the teacher's art.

It may not be out of place in this connection to quote the concluding remarks of the letter whose contents are so fully noted above:

"If I were to take a class of high school students through a year's history, I would first of all treat them as young men and women and not as infants. This latter above all things a high school student detests. I would try to get them interested in history as a study of that most interesting subject,—man. This interest aroused there would be little trouble in getting the students to work. I would encourage them to read in books other than the text, but I would want the reading well-chosen rather than extensive. Above all, I would try to keep something happening. Sleeping doesn't look well in the classroom. I would emphasize present-day affairs and, where possible, connect present and past events, thus making history vivid and real to the student. The boy or girl who knows why the capital of Egypt was changed from Memphis to Thebes and cannot tell whether or not the Democrats and Progressives have the same ideas on the tariff, is not my idea of what a history student should be."



## Reports from the Historical Field

BY WALTER H. CUSHING.

Prof. Walter Alison Phillips has been appointed First Lecky Professor of History in the University of Dublin.

Last spring, under the direction of Prof. F. C. Hearnshaw, an exhibition was held at King's College, London, on Modern Methods of Teaching History.

Professor Roscoe S. Pound, of the Harvard Law School, will be one of the speakers at the annual luncheon of the New England History Teachers' Association.

Doctor Charles P. Huse, of the University of Missouri, has been appointed successor to Doctor F. S. Baldwin, of Boston University. Professor Huse is a graduate of Harvard and has taught at Harvard, Williams, Dartmouth and Radcliffe. During the summer of 1910 he was employed in editorial work by the National Monetary Commission. Professor Huse will take the chair of Economics and Social Science.

Doctor J. Lynn Barnard, of the School of Pedagogy, Philadelphia, conducted a course for high school teachers of community civics at the Hyannis Normal School this last summer. The class devoted a large amount of attention to the discussion of the aims and methods to be employed. Each member of the class submitted a plan for teaching a topic.

A suggestion has been made to set up a memorial to Benjamin Franklin in the oldest parish church in London, St. Bartholomew, the Great. Part of the chapel was once occupied as a printing establishment, in which Benjamin Franklin, a young man 19 years of age, worked as compositor.

A photograph fac-simile of the "Orderly Book of General Artemas Ward, First Commander-in-Chief of the Revolution," is displayed in the Artemas homestead, Shrewsbury, Mass. The "Orderly Book" contains 350 large pages, covering the period from April 20, 1775, to April 3, 1777.

The 19th International Congress of Americanists which was to be held in Washington, October 5 to 10 of this year, has been postponed on account of the European war in response to an almost unanimous desire upon the part of the membership of the convention. No date for the future meeting of the Congress has been set, although it has been suggested that the meeting be held in the summer of 1915, in Washington, at the same time as the Pan-American Scientific Congress.

"The American Political Science Review" for August, 1914, contains four general articles: "Cabinet Government in France," by J. W. Garner; "The Authority of Vattel," by C. G. Fenwick; "Benjamin Franklin's Plans for a Colonial Union, 1750-1775," by Mrs. L. K. Mathews; and "The New York County System," by H. S. Gilbertson. There are the usual abundant and valuable legislative notes and news items concerning municipal affairs, recent government publications, and the index to recent literature upon political science.

Volume 3, No. 3 (July-Sept., 1914) of "History" contains a series of articles upon historical subjects. The leading paper is "The Treaty of Ghent," by T. B. Diks, a paper which will furnish nothing new for the student of American History. Prof. Beasley contributes a paper on the "Discovery of the Far East and of Inner Asia." Other papers deal with the origin and significance of feudalism, Machiavelli, The House of Lords from 1422 to 1485, and The Saxon Conquest of Devon.

## BOOK REVIEWS

EDITED BY PROFESSOR WAYLAND J. CHASE,  
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN.

GRAVES, FRANK PIERREPONT. *A History of Education in Modern Times*. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1913. \$1.50.

American teachers have been looking forward, for a long time, to the appearance of a single-volume summary of the development of modern education. Professor Graves' latest work, "A History of Education in Modern Times," has more than satisfied this want. It is a veritable "multum in parvo." The author has undoubtedly examined a large amount of source material, and has succeeded in compressing within the limits of this small volume a great many valuable facts. No previous work has so comprehensively summarized the most important period of educational history. And it has done more than this; it has reduced to a minimum the biographical material, and has treated general movements, not as isolated from contemporary political, social and economic tendencies, but rather as intimately related to them. As in each of his earlier works, Professor Graves has written an interesting and authentic account of an important phase of the great field of general history.

The book begins with a short survey of "The Eighteenth Century as a Period of Individualism," and then proceeds to make clear the significance of this epoch for all subsequent progress in education. The justification for giving Rousseau so prominent a place is seen when one considers that in many of their reforms, Basedow, Pestalozzi, Herbart, Froebel, and John Dewey were but carrying out suggestions made by Rousseau. In the treatment of each of these reformers practical aspects are emphasized, and related to educational practice in America.

ROBERT F. SEYBOLT

The University of Wisconsin.

SANFORD, ALBERT H. *Sanford American History Maps*. Chicago: A. J. Nystrom & Co. 32 plates, size 38x50 inches. \$24.00.

This is the most elaborate series of wall maps on American history yet produced. The size is large enough to permit the use of the maps in the ordinary class-room, and yet not too large for convenient handling. The color scheme is very simple, and the contrast in colors is always clear. No complicated cross-line devices are used; and the legends are uniformly intelligible. Each map contains scarcely any other detail than that necessary for the understanding of the topic treated. The drafting of the maps is well up to the best American standards for such work, although it does not show the skill seen in German maps.

The subjects treated include the usual maps of colonial explorations and settlements, territorial development and military campaigns. In addition, however, there are many of a political, social or economic nature. The movements of population, lines of migration and density of population are shown in a series of charts; internal improvements, railroads and canals furnish material for others; the slavery question is well treated in several maps; and still others show graphically the facts of manufactures, conservation, immigration and the growth of cities. A most interesting series shows on colored maps the electoral vote by States of each party in each Presidential election.

With the charts a teacher's manual is provided, which shows how much real instruction can be obtained from a map when good pedagogy is used. A further convenience lies in the fact that the maps may be purchased separately as well as in sets, and that they can be mounted to suit the desires of purchasers.

Griffin, Grace Gardner. *Writings on American History, 1912*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1914. Pp. 199. \$2.00.

The seventh number of the annual bibliography of American History prepared by Miss Grace Gardner Griffin, has appeared from the Yale "University Press." Three of the earlier volumes were published by the MacMillan Co., the last three appeared in the annual reports of the American Historical Association. The present volume begins the publication of the series under the auspices of the "Yale Press." The character of the most recent volume does not differ materially from the earlier volumes; 3,392 items are listed. All students of American History are greatly indebted to Miss Griffin and to the others who have made possible the publication of these bibliographies. Indexes to the literature of American History are now available for 1902, 1903 and for 1906 to 1912, inclusive.

It is to be regretted that no volumes have appeared for the years 1904 and 1905. If this gap were filled the worker in American History would have, with Richardson's "Literature of American History," a continuous bibliography to date.

Lewis, James Hamilton. *The Two Great Republics: Rome and the United States*. Rand, McNally & Co. Pp. 304. \$1.00.

Senator Lewis' book deals almost exclusively with Rome, of which he gives a chronological account. Only one chapter on "The Comparison" and a few references are given to the United States. Since he believes that "the political history of the Roman Republic is throughout its whole course a continuous contest between radicals and conservatives," Senator Lewis brings to our attention the lessons to be learned from Rome. Especial emphasis is given not only to the radicals and the conservatives, beginning with Tiberius Gracchus, but also to the early elements of the Roman constitution. The system of checks and balances, especially as presented in the veto power, and the exercise of the right of recall are considered. The act for the extension of citizenship to the Italians is called "the wisest action in the whole course of Roman history," but the author does not make a comparison of Roman and American citizenship. There are numerous long quotations from established writers on Roman history.

Senator Lewis believes that the abolition of the Roman Republic was a great misfortune. Unfortunately he does not explain the nature of the later Roman Republic and the problem of its government, showing how the late republic was different from the earlier small Italian community. On the provinces he gives only a quotation from Gibbon. For this reason he might seem to take a narrow view of the conditions in the last century of the republic. Of the Gracchi he says, "Tiberius Gracchus was the greater statesman; Gaius Gracchus the better politician." To Senator Lewis, Julius Caesar was the "destroyer of his country's liberties." Caesar is praised only by people "who are absolutely devoid of any true sympathy for free government or popular rights." There is no index, and, in general, the book is not fitted to meet the needs of the schools.

Pasadena High School.

R. L. ASHLEY.

MACAULAY, T. B. *The History of England, from the Accession of James the Second, with illustrations*. Edited by C. H. Firth. Volumes II and III. London: Macmillan & Co., 1914. Pp. xx, 523, and xix, 491. \$3.25.

The initial volume of this series of six was noticed in the book review section of the March number of this magazine and the excellence there described of the first superb volume is maintained by these two successors. The size of the type and the excellence of the paper give much satisfaction to the reader, as do the pictures, which are not only abundant but both large and finely executed as well. In each of these there are 160 or more illustrations, consisting of topographical plates, reprints of old tracts and broadsides, facsimiles of handwriting, and portraits in both color and black and white. Again the editor has shown great skill and care in the selection of material for his illustrations, and the result is a valuable aggregation of sources which effectively and delightfully illuminate the times. The third volume carries Macaulay's narrative into the period of James II's effort to establish himself in Ireland after William and Mary have come to the throne.

WAYLAND J. CHASE

USHER, ROLAND G. *The Rise of the American People*. New York: The Century Co., 1914. Pp. 413. \$2.00.

The sub-title of this interesting volume is "A philosophical Interpretation of American History," and the author's aim has been "to give the reader a lucid account of results and not of processes; to explain briefly the meaning of the facts of national development, rather than to chronicle the mere sequence of events." Professor Usher believes that the "essential and elementary 'facts' in history are not the actual events but the more complex conclusions which are to be deduced from a series of such events." From the standpoint of a specialist he has attempted to fit together on behalf of the layman the pieces of the puzzle-picture of American history so that they blend into the finished picture.

To the ambitious task of interpreting the entire range of American history the author has brought a wide and well-balanced understanding of the essential facts of that history, the ability to see those facts in their proper perspective and relation to other facts, and the command of a lucid, vivid, and vigorous style. The pleasing and confident, if sometimes arbitrary, manner in which Professor Usher handles his materials breeds a like confidence in his inferences and conclusions, while the reader is charmed with the persuasiveness of his language.

The title suggests a treatment broader than the political, but the one dominant problem of the American people, according to Professor Usher, has been the achieving of nationality, and every era is interpreted from the standpoint of its relation to this problem. In no true sense was this spirit of nationality an abiding force in the nation until the Civil War had killed the theory of state sovereignty. This conception of the state was the logical outcome of colonial experience in the development of self-governing colonies, and a united nation was an impossibility until this fundamental conception was removed. The history of the United States is therefore more concerned with the relationship of independent entities than with attempts to fuse these units into a whole.

Professor Usher's viewpoint is strictly American. He makes no attempt to view the colonies as an integral part of the British Imperial System. Later his insistence upon the dominance of sectionalism causes him to minimize the nationalism that Jackson imbued among the people, and he takes too much for granted that the position of the large slave owner was the true position of all Southerners.

Although Professor Usher barely suggests other important questions, such as the westward movement, internal improvements, and land system, finance and banking, the volume is highly stimulating and teachers and students will do well to balance Professor Usher's conclusions against their own.

A few slight defects may be mentioned. Jamestown was not the first permanent settlement in the United States (p. 23), the Virginia followers of Jefferson did not believe in "loose construction" of the constitution (p. 50), it is hardly just to call Crawford a "politician of unsavory reputation and little ability" (p. 232), and Meminger, Secretary of the Treasury of the Confederacy, was not "totally unacquainted with finance" (p. 329).

WALLACE CARSON

Morningside College, Iowa.

JAMES, J. A. *Readings in American History*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1913. Pp. xiii, 584. \$1.25.

In attempting to measure the value of a book of historical readings one asks of it such questions as these: Does it make accessible to the reader what was not accessible before? Are the selections judiciously chosen with respect to the interests, needs and capacities of high school pupils? Are they long enough to suggest adequately the epoch or event they cover, and is the field of history well covered by the book as a whole?

The answers to these are favorable to this book. The book market is not glutted with helps of this sort, as publishers have provided less "Readings" and collections of sources in American history than in the various sections of European history. Its selections are from primary sources not generally accessible to high school boys and girls and for the most part not yet used by other compilers. Few of these selections are from government documents, but the sources most used are journals and letters of travellers and of others contemporary with events described. Thus Father Marquette gives his account of his first voyage down the Meskousing (Wisconsin) and Mississippi Rivers: A Princeton student writes of life at his college in 1767 and later of what he as tutor in a Virginia family sees of plantation conditions. A trusted lieutenant of George Rogers Clark tells of the capture of Vincennes, and so on. Thus the conclusion of the enquirer is that this material will be both new and interesting to the pupil, as well as of value. The selections are longer than in many source books, and that is an advantage. The first of them is from the saga of Eric the Red, and the last from the inaugural message of President Wilson. A bird's-eye view of the distribution of them is as follows: To the events preceding the Revolutionary War 126 pages are given; to the period of this war and the Confederation 82 pages; from 1789 to the end of the War of 1812, 89 pages; from 1815 to 1860, 147 pages; to the Civil War, 55 pages; from 1865 to 1913, 89 pages. Preceding each selection is a brief but informing statement respecting the period it covers and the source from which it is taken. It is unquestionably a good book for the high school library.

WAYLAND J. CHASE

## Periodical Literature

MARY W. WILLIAMS, PH.D., EDITOR

"Ancient Roman Coiffures" are described by Franz von Gabnay in "Illustrirte Zeitung" for July 23, and illustrated by views of marble busts of Roman women showing various styles of hair-dressing.

"The New Canadian West," an illustrated article by W. McD. Tait ("Canadian Magazine," August), outlines the successive steps which have produced the prosperous, well-developed Western Canada of to-day.

The "Bulletin of the Pan-American Union" for July contains an illustrated article by Franklin Adams, editor of the "Bulletin," on "Indigenous Games in Latin America."

"Silent Sanctuaries," an article by James Louis Small ("American Catholic Quarterly Review," April), treats of "Glastonbury—a Cradle of the Saints," "Lindisfarne—the Holy Island," and "Whitby—a Royal Shrine;" and indicates the part played by each in the early history of the Christian Church.

A very readable account of the battle of Bannockburn by the Right Honorable Sir Herbert Maxwell appears in the "Cornhill Magazine" for June. It is accompanied by a plan of the field of battle.

"Liberty: Medieval and Modern," a discussion by A. F. Pollard ("Yale Review," July), goes to show that "liberty has been as multifarious as the crimes committed in its name."

The "Sociological Review" for April contains a paper on "Women in Primitive Society," by Lilian M. Whitehouse, which treats the following topics: social structure, economic position of women, the religious aspect, the political status of women, family life.

"Peter's Pence in the Middle Ages," an article by Thomas M. Schwertner, appears in the "American Catholic Quarterly Review" for April. The "pence," which was in the beginning a free gift, the writer states, in some parts gradually assumed the nature of a tax, sanctioned by the laws of the respective lands.

The "Mississippi Valley Historical Review" for June contains papers by Professor Eugene C. Barker, of the University of Texas, upon "The United States and Mexico, 1835-1837," and by Professor James A. James, of Northwestern University, upon "Louisiana as a Factor in American Diplomacy, 1795-1800."

"Alsace-Virginia"—so named by Tucker Brooke in an article entitled, "Afoot in Alsace-Virginia" ("Sewanee Review," July), is a strip of land lying across the mouth of the Shenandoah Valley. The territory belongs to West Virginia but is bound by ties of association and commerce to the Old Dominion. The article contains an interesting description of the region and calls attention to several historic monuments situated there.

"Blackwood's Magazine" for August contains the first part of a detailed study of "A Tudor Army," by James A. Williamson.

Olive Temple also has an article in the same number on "Women in Northern Nigeria," where "women are a strong folk," according to the opinion of a Nigerian chief who had married five hundred of them.

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"Profane Art in the Churches of the Middle Ages," an illustrated article by Dr. Nyrop, appears in the first number of "Aarbøger for Nordisk Oldkyndighed og Historie" for 1913.

The second number for the same year presents a study by Lis Jacobsen, of "Recently Discovered Runic Writings in Denmark," also illustrated. The runic inscriptions in question were found upon grave-stones dating from the tenth and eleventh centuries.

The "Review of Reviews" for August, in an article entitled "Europe's Reaction Against Alcohol," indicates the havoc wrought in many European countries by drink. Within the last decade most of the governments of Europe have enacted prohibitory laws—the Scandinavian countries leading in the movement. Iceland being first. Japan, Russia, Greece, and Norway have banished liquor from their navies.

The July number of the "Journal of Race Development" includes the following articles: "Contrasts in the Development of Nationality in the Anglo- and Latin-American," by Frederico A. Pezet, envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary from Peru; "Pan-American Possibilities," by John Barrett, director-general of the Pan-American Union; "The Mind of the Latin-American Nations," by David Montt, general correspondent of "El Diario Ilustrado," Santiago, Chile.

#### BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT PUBLISHED IN THE UNITED STATES FROM JUNE 20 TO AUGUST 29, 1914.

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, Ph.D.

##### American History.

- Baskin, R. N. Reminiscences of early Utah. [Salt Lake City, Utah; The Author.] 252 pp. \$2.00.
- Bell, E. I. The political shame of Mexico. New York: McBride, Nast. 422 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Blackburn, Mary S. The American Revolution. Wash., D. C.: J. L. Pearson Pt. Co. 60 pp. 50 cents.
- Bowen, John J. The strategy of Robert E. Lee. New York: Neale Pub. Co. 256 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Breckmann, Fred. History of Carbon county, Penna. Weatherly, Pa. The Author. 626 pp. \$5.00.
- Callahan, James M. Semi-centennial history of West Virginia. In 2 vols. Charleston, W. Va.: Semi-centennial Comm. of W. Va. 600 pp. \$1.75 net. To libraries, \$1.00.
- Carter, Robert G. Four brothers in blue. [Civil War, 1861-65.] Wash., D. C.: The Author, Army and Navy Club. 509 pp. \$2.50.
- Combs, Josiah H. The Kentucky highlands. Lexington, Ky.: J. L. Richardson Co. 44 pp. 35 cents.
- Douglas-Lithgow, Robt. A. Nantucket; a history. New York: Putnam. 389 pp. \$2.50.
- Fenwick, Charles G. The neutrality laws of the U. S. Wash., D. C. 201 pp. Gratis.
- Fretageot, Nora C., and Mangrum, W. H. Historic New Harmony. New Harmony, Ind.: Mangrum and Fretageot. 66 pp. 35 cents.
- Gage, Thomas H., Jr., editor. Notes on the history of Waterford, Maine. Worcester, Mass. [The editor.] 87 pp. Privately printed.
- Goodwin, Cardinal. The establishment of state government in California, 1846-50. New York: Macmillan. 359 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Gordon, Arthur Treat. Foundations of American civilization; an elementary history for 7a. New York: C. E. Merrill. 221 pp. 60 cents.
- Green, Samuel A. Old Mss. relating to Harvard, Massachusetts. Boston: The Author, 1154 Boylston Street. 24 pp. 25 cents net.
- Greenawalt, Lambert. Pennsylvania history. Brooklyn, N. Y.: T. J. McAvoy. 204 pp. 35 cents.
- Gregory, Thomas B. Our Mexican conflicts. New York: Hearst's Internat. Lib. Co. 158 pp. 50 cents net.
- Griffin, Grace G., compiler. Writings on American history, 1912. New Haven, Ct.: Yale Univ. 199 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Griffin, Sarah S. Quaint bits of Lowell history. Lowell, Mass. [The Author.] 112 pp. \$1.10.
- Haferkorn, H. E., compiler. The War with Mexico, 1846-48, a select bibliography. Wash., D. C.: Professional Memoirs. Washington Barracks. 93 and 28 pp. 50 cents.
- Hamilton, Joseph G. Reconstruction in North Carolina. New York: Longmans. 683 pp. \$4.00.
- Hexom, Charles P. Indian history of Winneshick county. Decorah, Iowa: A. K. Bailey & Son. 75 pp. 60 cents net.
- Howard, McHenry. Recollections of a Maryland confederate soldier and staff officer. Baltimore, Md.: Williams and Wilkins Co. 423 pp. \$2.00.
- Howbert, Irving. The Indians of the Pike's Peak region. [Colorado Springs, Colo.: The Author.] 230 pp. \$1.35.
- Hughes, Anne E. The beginning of Spanish settlement in the El Paso district. Berkeley, Cal.: Univ. of Cal. 295-392 pp. 75 cents.
- Hunt, Gaillard. The dept. of State of the United States; its history and functions. New Haven, Ct.: Yale Univ. 459 pp. \$2.25.
- Jones, Benj. W. Battle roll of Surry County, Va., in the War between the States. Richmond, Va.: E. Waddey Co. 70 pp. Privately printed.
- Journal of Am. Hist., Compiler. Perry's Victory; centennial souvenir. New York: The compiler. 95 pp. 50 cents.
- Judson, Katharine B., compiler. Subject index to the history of the Pacific northwest and Alaska as found in [U. S. and other documents]. Olympia, Wash.: Wash. State Library. \$1.00 net.
- Le Roy, James A. The Americans in the Philippines. In 2 vols. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. (5 pp. bibl.) \$10.00 net.
- Louisville, Ky., Free Pub. Library, compiler. Books and magazine articles on the Battles of Tippecanoe, River Raisin, and the Thames. Louisville, Ky.: The compiler. 11 pp.
- Moorehead, Warren K. Our national problem. [Indian question.] Andover, Mass.: The Author. 42 pp. Gratis.
- Nicholson, John P. Catalogue of the library relating to the War of the Rebellion, 1861-65. Phila.: The Author. 1022 pp. Privately printed.
- Nisbet, James C. Four years on the firing line. [Civil War.] Chattanooga, Tenn.: Imperial Press. 445 pp. \$1.50.
- Panama, the Canal and our relations with Columbia. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off. 75 pp.
- Paullin, C. O., and Paxson, F. L. Guide to the materials in London archives for the history of the U. S. since 1783. Wash., D. C.: Carnegie Inst. 642 pp. \$4.00.
- Peck, Rufus H. Reminiscences of a Confederate soldier. Fincastle, Va.: The Author, R. F. D. 2. 73 pp. 50 cents.
- Rand, James H. The North Carolina Indians. Chapel Hill, N. C.: Univ. of N. C. 41 pp. 50 cents.
- Reagan, Albert B. Don Diego; or the Pueblo Indian uprising of 1680. N. Y.: A. Harriman Co. 352 pp. \$2.50 net.
- Salisbury Asso. Historical Collections Relating to the town of Salisbury, Ct. Vol. 1. Litchfield, Conn.: The Author. \$2.00.
- Smith, Theodore C. The war between England and America. N. Y.: Holt. 256 pp. 50 cents net.
- Snow, Charles M. Religious liberty in America. Wash., D. C.: Review and Herald Pub. Assn. 448 pp. \$1.00.
- Spencer, Thomas E. Old St. Louis. St. Louis: C. P. Curran, Pr. 103 pp. 50 cents.

- Sydenstricker, Edgar, and Burger, A. L. School history of Virginia. Lynchburg, Va.: Dulaney-Boatwright Co. 381 pp. 60 cents.
- Tracy, Marion E. Fort Stanwix and our flag. Utica, N. Y.: Utica Deutsche Zeitung Pr. Ho. 31 pp. 50 cents.
- United States. The Panama Canal; treaties and acts of Congress relating to the Isthmian canal. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off. 55 pp.
- Univ. of Arizona, Library. Bibliographical list of books [etc.] on Arizona in the library. Tucson, Ariz.: The Author. 60 pp.
- Upton, Emory. The military policy of the U. S. during the Mexican War. Wash., D. C.: Govt. Pr. Off. 195-222 pp.
- Virginia (Colony) General Assembly. Journal of the House of Burgesses, 1695-96, 1696-97, 1698-99, 1700-02. Vol. II. Richmond, Va.: Va. State Lib. 414 pp. \$10.00 net.
- Wild, Laenas G. Decisive episodes in Western history. Iowa City, Ia. 45 pp. 50 cents.
- Wheeler, J. H. Historical facts of the state of Texas. Bryan, Texas: Bryan Eagle. 24 pp. 25 cents.
- White, Henry A. The making of South Carolina. N. Y.: Silver, Burdett. 344 pp. 65 cents.
- Woodward, W. C. The rise and early history of political parties in Oregon, 1843-1868. Portland, Oregon: J. K. Gill Co. 276 pp. (3 pp. bibl.). \$2.00 net.
- Young, Bennet H. Confederate wizards of the saddle. [Author one of Morgan's men.] Boston: Chapple Pub. Co. 633 pp. \$2.50.
- Ancient History.**
- Blümmer, Hugo. The home-life of the ancient Greeks. N. Y.: Funk & Wagnalls 576 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Bury, J. B. A history of Greece to the death of Alexander the Great. N. Y.: Macmillan. 909 pp. (33 pp. bibl.) \$2.00 net.
- Butler, Alfred J. Babylon of Egypt; a study in the history of Old Cairo. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 64 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Cornill, Carl H. The culture of ancient Israel. Chicago: Open Court Pub. Co. 167 pp. \$1.00.
- Fowler, William W. Roman ideas of deity in the last century before the Christian era. N. Y.: Macmillan. 167 pp. \$1.40 net.
- Jastrow, Morris, Jr. Babylonian-Assyrian birth omens and their cultural significance. N. Y.: G. E. Steckert. 86 pp. \$1.50.
- Langdon, S. Tammus and Ishtar; a monograph upon Babylonian religion and theology. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 196 pp. \$3.40 net.
- Lloyd, Thomas. The making of the Roman people. N. Y.: Longmans. 136 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Serviez, Jacques R. de. Roman Empresses. In 2 vols. N. Y.: H. S. Nichols. 540, 607 pp. \$6.00 net.
- Suetonius, Tranquillus, Caius, Suetonius. In 2 vols. Vol. 2. (Loeb Class. Lib.). N. Y.: Macmillan. 556 pp. \$1.50 net.
- Swindler, Mary H. Cretan elements in the cults and myths of Apollo. Bryn Mawr, Pa.: Bryn Mawr Coll. 80 pp. (8 pp. bibl.) 50 cents.
- Xenophon. Cyropaedia. In 2 vols. Vol. 1. (Loeb Class. Lib.) N. Y.: Macmillan. 399 pp. \$1.50 net.
- English History.**
- Ashley, William J. The economic organization of England; an outline history. N. Y.: Longmans. 213 pp. 90 cents net.
- Bland, A. E. The Normans in England, 1066-1154. N. Y.: Macmillan. 118 pp. 35 cents.
- Dicey, Albert V. Lectures on the relation between law and public opinion in England during the nineteenth century. N. Y.: Macmillan. 506 pp. \$2.60 net.
- Guilday, Rev. Philip. The English Catholic refugees on the continent, 1558-1795. Vol. 1. N. Y.: Longmans. 480 pp. (31 pp. bibl.) \$2.75 net.
- Hutton, William H. The teaching of Indian History. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 29 pp. 20 cents net.
- Kingsford, Charles L. English historical literature in the fifteenth century. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 445 pp. (9 pp. bibl.) \$5.00 net.
- Kermack, W. R. Historical geography of Scotland. N. Y.: Scribner. 134 pp. \$1.00 net.
- Macaulay, Thomas B., Lord. The history of England. In 6 vols. Vol. 3. N. Y.: Macmillan. 490 pp. \$3.25 net.
- Mitchell, Sidney K. Studies in taxation under John and Henry III. New Haven, Ct.: Yale Univ. 409 pp. \$2.00 net.
- Mookerji, Radhakumud. The fundamental unity of India (from Hindu sources). N. Y.: Longmans. 140 pp. \$1.25 net.
- Mumby, Frank A. Elizabeth and Mary Stuart; the beginning of the feud. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 407 pp. \$3.00 net.
- Oxford (The). Survey of the British Empire. In 6 vols. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. \$21.75 net.
- Perris, George H. The industrial history of modern England. N. Y.: Holt. 306 pp. (10 pp. bibl.) \$2.00 net.
- Ramsay, James H. Genesis of Lancaster, the reigns of Edward II, Edward III and Richard II. In 2 vols. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 538, 462 pp. (8 pp. bibl.) \$9.25 net.
- Robieson, W. D. The growth of Parliament and the war with Scotland (1216-1307). N. Y.: Macmillan. 120 pp. 35 cents net.
- Smith, Vincent A. The early history of India [rev. and enl. edition]. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 512 pp. \$4.75 net.
- Thompson, J. P., compiler. The Scottish covenanters 1637-1688). N. Y.: Macmillan. 120 pp. 35 cents net.
- Tout, Thomas F. The place of the reign of Edward II in English history. N. Y.: Longmans. 421 pp. \$3.50 net.
- Turberville, Arthur S. The House of Lords in the reign of William III. N. Y.: Oxford Univ. 272 pp. (6 pp. bibl.) \$2.90 net.
- European History.**
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